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ABSTRACT

Educational practices of Finnish-language and Swedish-language schools at all levels are described in this volume. Administration of education is discussed, all levels except higher education being under the jurisdiction of the National Board of Schools which reports to the Ministry of Education, and professional education being governed by several ministries. Pre-school education which is voluntary and financed by municipalities, industrial enterprises, associations, and private individuals are briefly reported upon. Primary, secondary, and higher education are explained in some detail including information on educational history, administration, reform, the school year, school districts, statistics, class sizes, social benefits and questions, subjects taught, teaching methods, the marking system, examinations and diplomas, and categories of schools. Additional sections are provided on popular education -- namely a post school education of cultural activity -- and on professional, vocational, and technical institutions. Three supplements are presented on school statistics, the school reform in Finland, and educational policy, planning, finance, and research. (SJM)

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Education in FINLAND

BY MATTI GUSTAFSON

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INTRODUCTION

Finland covers an area of 337,000 square kilometres and, on January 1st, 1965, has a population of 4,597,793, of whom 2,008,480 live in the urban centres. The population is concentrated mainly in the south and south-west of the country, and huge stretches of Lapland and along the eastern border are almost uninhabited.

In 1960, the working population totalled 2,033,250, divided into the following groups:

agriculture and forestry:	31,7 % (41,6 % in 1950)
industry and building:	30,9 % (29,2 % " ")
commerce:	8,8 % (6,9 % " ")
transport & communications:	6,7 % (6 % " ")
services:	10,8 % (9,2 % " ")
liberal professions:	10,8 % (5,9 % " ")
occupation unknown:	0,3 % (1,2 % " ")

Between 1950 and 1960 the farming community decreased by 266,000, and this has given rise to serious educational problems (at the beginning of 1964, 195 primary schools in country districts had fallen into disuse, and it is estimated that, in a few years' time, 250 more schools will suffer the same fate).

The standard of living in Finland closely resembles that of the other Scandinavian countries, and is among the highest in the world. But, in spite of this, seasonal unemployment and the state of the national economy prevent Finland from putting into practice all the social plans drawn up in recent years. It should be remembered that Finland suffered greatly from the wars of 1918, 1939 and 1941-45. She lost 2,3 % of her population, paid war debts to the value of 300 million dollars at 1938 values (almost one thousand million dollars in terms of 1944 values) and ceded nearly 25,000 square kilometres of good land in Karelia to the Soviet Union.

Finland, which became independent in 1917, has kept her 1919 constitution unchanged, thus proving how firmly based her democratic institutions are. She is a parliamentary republic, with executive power in the hands of a President, assisted by a Council of Ministers. Legislative power is held by a single-chamber Parliament, with 200 members. They are elected every four years under a system of direct universal suffrage combined with proportional representation. The government is nominated by the President of the Republic, but each minister must have the confidence of Parliament. The activities of both Government and President are controlled, from the legal point of view, by a "Chancellor of Justice" (oikeuskansleri) with far-reaching power.

There is a considerable degree of regional autonomy, and this facilitates the task of ministries and government departments which, for the most part, function with comparatively small staffs.

As regards regional administration, Finland is divided into 12 departments or counties (lääni), each administered by a governor (maaherra), assisted by a regional government.

The Evangelical Lutheran Church is a State church, 93 % of the population belong to it, and its position is a strong one. It has, for instance, the right to certain revenues; 1 % of the taxable income of every tax-payer who is a member of the Church goes straight to the Church. About 1,6 % of the population belong to the Greek Orthodox Church, which has the same position as the Lutheran Church in relation to the state. As instruction in the Christian religion is compulsory for every child belonging to one or other of these churches, no problem arises in the field of religious education. However, there are difficulties in providing religious education for the Orthodox students where they are few in number. The country is divided into 8 dioceses, each headed by a bishop and chapter.

The local administrative units are the communes. On January 1st, 1964, Finland had 45 towns, 24 large centres of population (kauppala) and 478 communes. Communal affairs are decided by a municipal council with, under it, the offices and committees responsible for the various branches of local administration. The Finnish constitution safeguards the principle of autonomy for the communes.

THE ORGANISATION OF FINNISH EDUCATION

Education in Finland is complicated by the existence of two national languages: Finnish, which is spoken by nearly 93 % of the population (the statistic date from January 1st, 1960), and Swedish, which is spoken by just over 7 %. However, Swedish - even as a minority language - is gradually losing ground.

Under the constitution, compulsory education is made available to every child in his own language in the bilingual communes and, in the unilateral communes, in the language spoken there. (A commune is considered bilingual if it has a linguistic minority of more than 8 %). The Swedish-speaking population is concentrated entirely along a narrow coastal strip in the south, south-west and west of Finland.

As Finland has a tradition of freedom in educational matters, it frequently happens that even in single-language communes, linguistic minorities found schools in which the teaching is in their own language. In almost all cases, these private schools receive a substantial government subsidy, sometimes amounting to 75 % of their running costs.

In practice, therefore, there are Finnish-language and Swedish-language schools at all educational levels, and with

identical curricula. Moreover, it is not uncommon for parents to send a child to a school where teaching is not in his own language, so that he may acquire a thorough knowlege of the second language. This is more apt to happen among Swedish-speaking families. All schools are, of course, under the control of the Finnish state, even those subsidised or supported by foreign countries (the French, English, German, Russian, Turkish and Hebrew schools).

In 1963, the Finnish Parliament approved a motion calling on the Government to take speedy measures to remodel the primary school system on a comprehensive school basis (Basic School). In 1967 the Government introduced a bill which set out the framework of a new Basic School of comprehensive type. It is proposed that the Basic School should be adopted after about 16 years. This school will be free of charge and compulsory, and will provide the education which up to now has been given in the primary schools and middle schools - or first stage of the secondary schools.

For nearly a century, the body ultimately responsible for administering education in Finland has been the Kouluhallitus (the National Board of Schools), which, in turn, comes under the Ministry of Education. The Board's task is the management and practical supervision of primary and secondary schools, teachers' training colleges, people's educational institutions and libraries. All the more important projects drawn up by the National Board of Schools must be submitted to the Ministry of Education for approval.

The universities all come directly under the Ministry of Education, but they have many privileges and a considerable degree of autonomy. There are state-owned and state-subsidised universities.

Professional education is administered by several ministries. Technical and commercial education comes under the National Technical and commercial education comes under the National Board of Vocational Education (which is subordinated to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry), and agricultural education under the National Board of Agriculture (which comes under the Ministry of Agriculture). The other branches belong to the Ministries of National Defence, Internal Affairs and Social Affairs.

The Lutheran Church does not now intervene directly in education, but it still organises - often within the framework of the secondary schools - a Confirmation course which must be taken by anyone wishing to be married in church.

As relations between the National Board of Schools and the Ministry of Education have never been well defined, it was decided that they must be radically re-cast, and measures to this effect have been taken. Under these plans, the Ministry will play a much more important part than at present.

PRE–SCHOOL EDUCATION

The education laws in Finland do not provide for compulsory, or even voluntary, pre-school teaching, as is the case in many countries. Before school age, which in principle begins at 7, children can go to a nursery school. But there are not yet enough of these for the whole child population.

The first nursery schools in Finland were started towards the end of the last century. At the present time they come under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Affairs, and are for children aged between three and six.

They are financed by municipalities, industrial enterprises, associations and private individuals. In certain cases they receive State subsidies. In 1963, there were 272 State-subsidised nursery schools, taking a total of 17,680 children. There are both full-time and part-time nursery schools, the former being open for 9 or 10 hours a day and the latter for 4 hours. About one-third of the children spend the whole day there. They are divided into age-groups, under the supervision of qualified teachers.

The aim of the nursery schools is to assist the children's development and to provide them with the necessary background for group activities. Programmes are extremely varied, and are

intended to further the children's mental and social, as well as their physical and moral, development. The teachers are, however, not bound to follow either a fixed curriculum or a yearly plan. It is considered more important to create an atmosphere of confidence and friendship, and a spirit of happy companionship among the children.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

HISTORICAL NOTE

The first proposals for organizing general primary education in Finland were made by Bishop Gezelius, in 1683, in a work called Methodus Informandi. And the first result was the promulgation of the religious law of 1686, which declared it to be the duty of every citizen to learn to read. A Finn who could not read was not allowed to make his first communion or get married. From then onwards, the number of illiterates in Finland decreased sharply.

A great step forward was taken when Uno Cygnaeus (1810-1888) drew up the basis of the 1866 decree on primary schooling. From that moment, and with the support of the cultivated classes, primary education made rapid strides, in spite of the fact that it was not compulsory.

In 1898, the division of the country into school districts led to the setting up of a primary school wherever as many as 30 pupils could be enrolled. This, however, still did not apply to isolated villages.

It was not until 1921 that the law on compulsory school attendance came into force. This provided for 6 years at primary

school and, if the pupil did not intend to take up other studies, another two years of further education.

THE DIVISION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

The 1957 and 1958 laws on primary instruction lay down that actual primary schooling, lasting 6 years, should be followed by 2 years of civic education and, since 1962, this can be prolonged by a further year. Schooling is compulsory for all children aged between 7 and 15. But although in principle they begin at 7, they can, in exceptional cases and after passing aptitude tests, start at 6.

The primary schools also have classes for backward or slightly handicapped children.

THE SCHOOL YEAR

For the primary schools there are 200 days in the school year, which lasts from September 1st until the last working day in May. The year is divided into two terms, separated by a three-week holiday at Christmas. The Easter holiday lasts one week. In addition, the children have about a week's holiday at the end of February or the beginning of March, known as the "ski-ing holiday".

SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Each commune is divided into districts, calculated so that no child will have to walk more than five kilometres to school, the youngest children even less. In the case of civic schools and

municipal (junior) secondary schools, and sometimes even primary schools, the districts can be larger on condition that transport is organised for the pupils.

Each district where there are as many as 27 children of school age must have a primary school. In the sparsely-inhabited communes and the archipelago, there must be a school for every 20. A school cannot be closed down unless it has fewer than 15 pupils for three successive years.

In the bilingual communes, the minimum number of children necessary for the founding of a school for the linguistic minority is 18. Such a school can be closed only if the number of pupils is fewer than 12 for three consecutive years.

STATISTICS FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS

(See also Supplement I)

In 1964-65, Finland possessed 5,547 Finnish-language primary schools, with 18,691 teachers - both men and women - and 452,912 pupils. Swedish-language primary schools numbered 419, with 1,188 teachers and 22,695 pupils. The number of ordinary civic schools was 369, with 3,174 teachers and 65,670 pupils. In addition, 127 civic schools provided evening classes only; they had 271 teachers and 13,186 pupils. As regards Swedish-language schools, three were 41 ordinary civic schools, with 193 teachers and 991 pupils, and 5 evening-class civic schools attended by 265 pupils.

In 1964-65, there were 101 municipal (junior) secondary schools. Of these, 99 (including 6 Swedish-language schools) were in country districts. They were attended by 17,279 Finnish-speaking and 769 Swedish-speaking pupils. Partly due to financial

reasons, there are still very few of them compared with the ordinary secondary schools. The Government sanctions the opening of communal schools only in those districts where there are no other secondary schools, but experimental schools of this kind can be founded even in other areas.

SIZE OF CLASSES

For the first two years of primary school, the maximum number of pupils which any class may contain is 34. In special cases, the staff are allowed to teach pupils belonging to two, or even three, classes, during the same lesson. After the third year, the maximum is 40 to a class. Classes are, in principle, mixed, but after the third year boys and girls follow different courses in handwork. And, at any rate by the time they enter the civic school or municipal (junior) secondary school, they do gymnastics and sports separately. For handwork, domestic economy and other branches of practical instruction, the maximum is twenty pupils to each group.

SOCIAL BENEFITS

All forms of primary schooling are free of charge. The pupils receive textbooks and all necessary equipment and materials, as well as one meal a day. Medical and dental inspection and care provided without charge to all pupils. And clothing and shoes are given to children from very poor families.

The communes are obliged to provide transport and lodging for pupils living far from the school. If there are 16 or more such

children, the commune must set up a type of boarding-school, where they can live free of charge.

STATE SUBSIDIES

The municipalities and communes receive a subsidy - either direct or in the form of a redeemable loan - amounting to between 60 % and 95 % of the actual construction costs of each school building. The State refunds two-thirds of the amount the communes spend on the purchase of furniture and school equipment, as well as on the libraries and pupils' social benefits. It also guarantees 90 % of the teachers' salaries. The towns are granted a subsidy amounting to 33 % of the cost of primary education.

ADMINSTRATION OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

Outside the towns, each primary school district has its own administrative board, whose main task is to direct and supervise primary school activities. In towns and urban centres, primary schools sharing the same language may all come under a single administrative committee. In the case of country schools, it is the responsibility of the primary school commission to ensure uniformity of curriculum. At the head of all school administration is the National Board of Schools, seconded by the primary school inspectors. The country is divided into 47 primary school inspection districts. In every town of more than 15,000 inhabitants, there is a school inspector appointed by the municipality.

CURRICULUM

The curriculum is drawn up by the principals of each school and approved by the administrative committee. It must be passed in its final form by the school inspector. And those sections of it which affect the first stage of secondary education - the stage closely connected with primary education - must go before the National Board of Schools.

The curriculum defines in detail the general organisation of school work, the subjects to be taught, the exact length of annual courses and the textbooks to be used. It is reviewed each year and the amount of time to be allotted to each subject is then decided.

Great importance is attached to relations between teachers and parents, who are thus able to follow in detail the course of their children's education.

As regards textbooks, there is a certain amount of choice, but each book must be approved by the National Board of Schools.

SCHOOL SUBJECTS

The subjects taught in the primary schools are normally divided into five main branches:

(1) Teaching intended to give the pupils a sound moral grounding (religion)

(2) Contact with nature and humanity (social education, geography, biology, instruction in health rules and temperance, agriculture, housecraft, history)

(3) Acquisition of the means of culture (a foreign language, Finnish or Swedish the second national language, mathematics)

(4) Practical teaching in the arts (drawing, handwork, singing)

(5) Gymnastics and sports.

The education laws provide for the teaching of religion according to the faith to which the majority of the pupils belong. Children of other denominations are not obliged to take this course. However, if there are more than 8 pupils not following the course, all of whom belong to one denomination, a special course must be organised for them. If there are as many as 5 pupils not belonging to any church, they must be given instruction in religious history and ethics.

The religious teaching gives a child a basic knowledge of his own faith and develops his moral sense.

Religious history is related both to the type of religion most affecting the Finns and to the principal religions of the world.

The natural science courses open up the world of nature to the children. This branch of education comprises natural history (the study of plants and animals), natural sciences (physics and chemistry), the rules of hygiene, temperance, housecraft and agriculture.

Special attention is given to the locality of the school. The curriculum for pupils in industrial and urban zones differs from that given in farming and forests areas. In the earlier stages of primary schooling, the pupils learn mainly about conditions which apply to their own region. In the senior classes, teaching centres on the practical application of the natural sciences to economic life. Local conditions, therefore, play a decisive role in the organisation of the courses. For example, biology is taught in the farming areas with the aid of examples drawn from agriculture. In the urban centres, pupils learn primarity about

problems of industrial application, and in the country, about farming and forestry questions. Domestic economy and hygiene are studied in the same way in the upper forms of primary schools throughout Finland.

In addition to natural sciences, the pupils are taught about social questions, and given object lessons which may serve to guide them in later life and help them to understand their social environment. This branch of education includes certain subjects belonging to natural history, geography or history which affect the pupils and have a bearing on their daily lives. It also serves as a basis for later studies in natural history, history and geography. Small practical exercises, which they do individually, give the children an opportunity for self-expression and for making personal observations.

The geography syllabus deals with living conditions of people in Finland and other parts of the world. Teaching generally begins in the third school year, with the children's home region as the principal subject of study. Next comes a detailed study of Finland and, by the end of the fourth year, pupils have sufficient knowledge of their homeland to be able to pass on to foreign countries, beginning with the neighbouring states. In the final class, they go back to the geography of Finland, studying its economic and social aspects.

The history courses give the children an idea of how life was lived in past ages, both in Finland and in other countries. Here the main aim is to give the pupils an understanding of the changes which have taken place down the centuries, and to teach them to pick out for themselves the reasons for these changes and the relation between them. In order to make these courses more concentrated, teaching is based on the history of Finland.

Nevertheless, a broad study is made of the main events of world history.

Particular attention is given to the teaching of Finnish (or Swedish), which forms the basis of primary studies. However, this is made considerably easier by the fact that Finnish is one of the few languages which is written absolutely phonetically. As a consequence, illiteracy has for a long time been unknown in Finland, and it is not uncommon to find children who can read and write even before going to primary school.

But the study of Finnish is, nevertheless, important and, during the first four years, this vast subject alone occupies more than one-third of the week's courses. These include a large number of practical exercises, discussions and readings, during which the pupils study the use of books and questions of grammar. In the early stages, the exercises are based on actual events of family or local life and, in the higher classes, on exposés - the result of the children's own work.

Tuition in a foreign language, or the second national language should give the pupils the necessary grounding in pronunciation, accent, speaking, reading and essential points of grammar.

Since the 1964-65 school year, the study of the second national language or a foreign language has been compulsory in those primary schools which so decide. In the Swedish - language schools, the general choice is Finnish, and in the Finnish-language schools, English, although in a number of cases, Swedish is chosen instead.

The teaching of mathematics (artihmetic) gives the pupils sufficient knowledge for everyday life, especially from the practical point of view. In the infant school, they learn the numbers up to 100, with all their practical applications and, in

the later stages, up to one milliard (one thousand million). The exercises are usually based on objects familiar to the child and, in the middle forms, include addition, subtraction, multiplication and division.

Drawing lessons give the child an opportunity of expressing his personality. The aim is to make him observe accurately, to train him in careful and methodical work and to develop his aesthetic sense. In the elementary classes, the main emphasis is on drawing or working with paper and cardboard. In the intermediate stage, the children make their first acquaintance with water-colour painting, calligraphy, charcoal, etc. In the upper forms, they study the practical applications of this work.

Handwork traditionally holds an important place in Finnish education. The aim is more or less the same as with drawing, but the lessons also serve to make the pupils familiar with the more commonly-used tools, and to give them the manual skills which no one should be without. Practical exercises are the same in the earlier classes for both boys and girls, and include crochet, knitting and sewing. In the upper forms, the girls perfect this knowledge and, in particular, learn accuracy and the way to use the various tools. The boys are taught different kinds of woodwork, also paper-hanging, how to treat different surfaces, painting, etc.

Singing lessons consist in the first place of learning a large number of popular or patriotic songs, and of developing the voice and acquiring a musical training. Singing is a means of recreation and relaxation in school life, and also of aesthetic education. The rudiments of music and its history are taught by degrees, with the aid of the songs the children learn.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS' TIMETABLE

SUBJECT	PRIMARY SCHOOL						CIVIC SCHOOL											
							Agricultural Branch				Technical Branch x)				Commercial Branch			
							Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	7	8	7	8	7	8	7	8	7	8
Religion, religious history, ethics	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Object lessons	4	4																
Finnish (or Swedish), writing	9	9	9	9	7	7	6	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	3	4	3	4
Mathematics	4	4	5	5	4	4	2		2		4	3						
History and Social Sciences (1)					3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Geography			4	3	2	2												
Natural Sciences				1	3	4												
Drawing			2	2	2	2												
Handwork	2	2	3	3	3	3												
Gymnastics and Sports (2)			2	2	2	2												
	3	3					3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Singing			2	2	2	2							1	1				
Commercial Subjects															16	18	16	18
Housecraft, children							2		7	11	2		21	24	2		4	5
Handwork									9	8							4	
Mechanics and electronics											4	6						
Metallurgy							9	10			7	9			6	2		
Woodwork											7	7				3		
Rural economy							10	15	6	6			2					
Total	24	24	29	29	30	31	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	34	34	34	34
Second national language or foreign language (3)			2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

(x) For girls: a branch of domestic science and handwork.

(1) History in the primary school and social sciences in the civic school.

(2) In the civic school part of the time allocated to sports and gymnastics is used for the teaching of health rules.

(3) The language syllabus (second national language, or foreign language) was drawn up in 1964 by the primary schools' planning committee. If these subjects are taught, the time devoted to other subjects must be reduced so that the weekly timetable is not more than 30 hours for Classes 5-6 and 36 hours for the civic school.

Gymnastics and sports ensure the physical development of the children, while team competitions help to inculcate social sense, discipline and order. There are no detailed programmes or set standards, and each pupil makes what progress he can. Gymnastics include a number of movements and exercises, while under the heading of sports come ball games, athletics, ski-ing, skating and, where possible, swimming.

SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN THE CIVIC SCHOOLS

According to the education law, the civic schools' curriculum must include subjects and practical exercises closely connected with the economic life of the region and, in addition, tuition in religion, religious history, social matters, Finnish (or Swedish), literature, domestic economy and child care. Only a few subjects, therefore, are fixed categorically in advance and, as regards the others, there is great freedom of choice. Almost without exception the other subjects include rural economy, wood and metal work, electrical work, mechanics and also, for some time past, the second national language or a foreign language. And in some of the larger schools a certain number of commercial subjects are also studied.

Because education in the civic schools is intended to be as varied as possible, and to be of help in the choice of a career, tuition is based on three main sections, with variations according to local requirements and the interest shown by the pupils. These three sections are agricultural, technical and commercial. There is also combined section which includes handwork and domestic economy. While the majority of the subjects taught are the same for each section, the number of hours spent on each subject

varies according to the section (see table, p. 21). This table takes into account only the two-year course at civic school, because after 1970 this will be the one most widely followed.

Supplementary teaching in the following subjects: religion, Finnish, Swedish, a foreign language, hyniege and temperance, mathematics, singing, gymnastics and sports - all of which have been studied at primary school - enlarges the pupils´knowledge and gives them adequate information on the everyday problems of the average citizen.

Education in civic and social questions occupies one of the most important places in the civic school programme. The aim is to enable a pupil to understand the society in which he lives, and also to develop his critical faculties as regards social and economic questions, and his sense of responsibility and administrative ability.

In addition, civic education includes a basic knowledge of the more usual crafts or vocations, and provides a general picture of present-day Finnish society and of the economic life and administration of the country.

Commercial subjects (accountancy, techniques of buying and selling) are taught mainly in the towns and large centres of population. Pupils can receive theoretical instruction and also gain practical experience by spending short periods with commercial firms ("sandwich courses").

Domestic economy is now taught in all sections, and to girls as well as boys. The aim is to arouse the pupils´interest in, and respect for, household duties, and to give them a sense of responsibility over any such tasks which may fall to them, while at the same time providing them with adequate theoretical and practical knowledge of housecraft. Girls are taught general

domestic economy, cooking, dietetics, hygiene, the rudiments of nursing, etc. Boys learn mainly the theory of domestic economy, cooking and dietetics.

Child care, which has a direct connection with domestic economy, is taught to boys as well as girls, to enable them to understand the grave responsibilities which they will take on in later life. Plans are now being studied to add sex education to the courses on child care and hygiene.

Rural economy occupies a decreasingly important place in Finnish economic life, but the civic school curriculum still devotes much time to it, especially in the agricultural regions. The aim is both to arrest the flight from the land and to stimulate the pupils' interest in agriculture. Different aspects of this subject are taught in different areas.

Handwork as taught to the girls is designed to show the mothers of the future how to deal with clothing problems. The programme includes the everyday forms of needlework and cutting out, as well as knowledge of materials, the care of clothing (with practical exercises) and weaving.

The wood and metalwork classes are designed to acquaint the boys with ordinary methods of work in these fields. At the same time, they acquire all the practical knowledge they are likely to need in everyday life. The programme covers the understanding and use of the more usual machine-tools, a study of the commoner raw materials, basic techniques of wood and metalwork and the treatment of surfaces - as well as problems of costing.

Mechanical and electrical work has a close connection with metalwork. The aim of this instruction is to make the pupils familiar with the type of machines used in Finland, with electrical equipment and combustion engines, and to teach them the use,

refuelling and simple repair of these machines. Theoretical study is accompanied by practical instruction.

SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN THE MUNICIPAL (JUNIOR) SECONDARY SCHOOL

In the municipal secondary schools, which consist only of the middle school, or first stage of the State secondary schools, the same subjects are taught as in the State schools. However, two additional subjects - one compulsory and one optional - can be added to the curriculum. This means that curriculum and teaching are the same as in the State schools (cf. chapter on the secondary school), but that studies can be concentrated on a group of related subjects - a point of great importance both for the pupils and for the economic life of the region.

Municipal secondary schooling can be based on either 4 or 6 years at primary school. In the first case it lasts 5 years, in the second 3 or 4 years.

In a few isolated cases, and as an experiment, some portions of the subjects normally taught in the municipal secondary school have been joined to the primary school curriculum, in order that more time may be devoted to languages and mathematics at secondary school level. These experiments, which are fairly recent, seem to be giving good results.

SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN THE SPECIAL CLASSES

In the special classes for slightly handicapped children, the same subjects are taught but with a simplified syllabus. Here the main point of the instruction is to teach the pupils good behaviour and to instil a feeling of self-confidence.

In addition, there are special classes for children who cannot follow normal teaching but who are too intelligent to be placed among the handicapped. In these, which are known as supervised classes, the syllabus is the same as in normal classes.

TEACHING METHODS

There are certain general rules applicable to teaching methods, but each teacher has the right to choose the one which best suits the situation. So that this freedom of action should not hamper the pupils in the case of a change of teaching staff, the latter are bound, wherever feasible, to use a system of instruction in which the pupils take part actively and in as individual a manner as possible. The exact methods depend in the first place on the general level of the class and on its group spirit. The participation of the pupils is of course sought, and other recommended methods which are frequently put into practice include group work and discussions.

The more important teaching aids include films, television (3 hours of television time are devoted each week to primary schools), radio (4 or 5 hours a week), photographic slides, etc. As regards the size of classes, the normal aim is a limit of 25 to 30 children, but in the new towns, where the population has increased rapidly, the school building programme is behind schedule and classes often considerably exceed the limits laid down.

THE MARKING SYSTEM

From their first year, pupils in both primary and secondary schools receive marks at the end of the two terms for every subject taught, as well as for conduct, attention and discipline. Marking is by means of figures: the lowest is 4 (poor); 5 and 6 mean fair, 7 and 8 satisfactory, 9 and 10 good.

A pupil who has marks equivalent to fair in all subjects goes up to the next class. If he has a poor mark he will not have to stay a second year in the same class provided that he passes a supplementary examination in the autumn, before the beginning of term, in the subject in which he is weak. If he has poor marks in two subjects (with the exception of singing, gymnastics and sports), he must be another year in the same class.

Fresh instructions on the marking system are expected shortly from the National Board of Schools, and at present the old instructions, laid down in the 1943 decree, are being followed. According to these, the (class average) marks given by the teacher should be above 7 and below 8 unless some particular reason - special knowledge, or lack of knowledge on the part of the pupil - obliges the teacher to depart from these averages. A large-scale inquiry covering the years 1951-55 showed the following averages for the whole country: religion 7,5; reading 7,6; writing 6,9; geography 7,1; natural history 7,2; mathematics 6,9. The boys' averages were regularly lower than the girls'.

In the communal secondary schools, the averages were about the same as in the corresponding classes of the ordinary secondary schools.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

HISTORICAL SKETCH

The earliest written information on secondary education in Finland dates from 1326. It tells of a bequest to the cathedral school of Turku. It is probable, however, that this school was already in existence by about 1250. By the end of the middle ages, several other schools had been founded, among them those at Viipuri, Rauma Porvoo and Kökar.

With the coming of the Reformation education, no longer supported by the Church, suffered a certain setback, but in 1571 there appeared the first written provisions regarding general secondary education in Finland. These, however, concerned solely the seminaries. In 1649 there came into being the first proper secondary schools, divided into three different stages. In 1724, the secondary schools began to serve administrative needs by preparing officials for their tasks. The present organisation, though considerably modified in later years, dates from 1872.

ADMINSTRATION

Secondary schools in Finland fall into two categories: State schools and private schools, the latter being by far the more numerous (121 State and 291 private secondary schools). The reason for this is, quite simply, the historical evolution of education in Finland. Until about the middle of the last century, Swedish was the language used in all secondary schools. The first Finnish-language secondary school was founded as the result of private initiative in 1858 at Jyväskylä. It was so successful that private individuals in many areas set up associations to promote the foundation of Finnish-language schools. The State followed the same trend, although somewhat slowly and, even today, the majority of new secondary schools stem from private initiative (after several years the State gives them financial aid of more than 80 % of their running costs).

Both State and private secondary schools come under the strict supervision of the National Board of Schools. The diplomas awarded in the private schools are considered just as valid as those of the State schools, in view of the fact that, with slight variations, the same curricula are followed in both types of institution.

A State school is directly responsible to the National Board of Schools, while a private foundation comes under its supporting association and the administrative board chosen by the association. However, permanent control by the National Board of Schools is a condition for the granting of a State subsidy. The Board submits its more important projects to the Ministry of Education.

Unlike the primary schools, the secondary schools are not grouped into school districts, but the State employs a number of

inspectors-general, who pay regular visits. It is usually on the basis of information gathered during these inspections that subsidies are granted to the private schools.

Each secondary school has as its scholastic director and manager a principal (rehtori), seconded by a vice-principal. In the State schools, the principal is chosen for a 5-year period. He is nominated by the National Board of Schools, which first takes into consideration the opinions of the school's teaching body and the parents' council. In the private schools the principal is chosen on a competitive basis and appointed for life. The principal must teach one subject and he is responsible for the practical organisation of teaching, as well as for the scholastic and administrative management of the school.

All secondary schools, whether private or State-provided, have a parents' council which plays an important part in relations between family and school. It is chosen by the local municipal council.

THE VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF SCHOOL

The existing secondary schools can be grouped into several categories. State schools are divided as follows:

Those based on the first four classes of primary school

- secondary classical (grammar) schools - 8 classes
- secondary modern schools - 8 classes
- mixed (boys' and girls') secondary modern schools - 8 classes
- middle schools (first stage of secondary schools) - 5 classes
- secondary modern schools for girls - 9 classes
- secondary modern schools for girls - 8 classes

CURRICULUM FOR AN 8-CLASS SECONDARY SCHOOL

COMPULSORY SUBJECTS	MIDDLE SCHOOL					UPPER SCHOOL						TOTAL	
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI		VII		VIII			
						A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16	16
Finnish (or Swedish)	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	27	27
History, social & economic sciences		2	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	22	22
Psychology & philosophy (1)						2	2	2	2	2	2	6	6
Natural sciences & geography (1)	6	3	4	4	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	27	27
Physics & chemistry				4	4		3		3		3	8	17
Mathematics	5	4	4	4	4	3	5	3	5	3	5	30	36
Second national language (Swedish or Finnish)	4	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	24	24
First foreign language (English, German or, in some cases, Russian, Latin, French)		5	5	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	28	28
Latin or second foreign language (English, German or Russian)						5		5		5		15	
Third foreign language (French or English) (2)						3	3	3	3	3	3	9	9
Gymnastics, sports, hygiene	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	28	28
Drawing, modelling, calligraphy (2)	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18	18
Handwork	2	2	2									6	6
Singing	2	2										4	4
	32	32	33	33	33	33		33		33			
OPTIONAL SUBJECTS													
Handwork or stenography				2	2							4	4
Singing			2	1	1							4	4
Music or English						2	2	2	2	2	2	6	6
	32	32	35	36	36	35		35		35			

Remarks: A) Language section, in which mathematics, physics and chemistry play a considerably less important part.
B) Mathematics section, in which this subject occupies the principal position.
(1) In the upper school, psychology and philosophy are interchangeable with natural sciences and geography.
(2) The third foreign language and drawing can be dropped in favour of a fourth language, to which the same number of hours will be allotted as for the second foreign language.
It will be noted that the curriculum includes several compulsory language courses. Similarly, optional language courses can be taken.

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- middle schools for girls - 6 classes

Those based on tne first six years of primary school

- secondary modern schools - 6 classes
- mixed secondary schools - 7 classes

Those based on the middle (first stage of secondary) school

- senior (second-stage) secondary schools - 3 classes

The private schools fall generally into the same subdivisions, but in their case the majority are mixed. In fact, it was on private initiative that the system of educating boys and girls together came into being. The majority of private schools are mixed secondary schools consisting of 8 classes, or middle schools of 5 classes. There are, however, a number of experimental schools, organised on individual lines.

In all schools, the year is divided into two terms: the autumn term, beginning on September 1st and ending on December 20th, and the spring term, from January 9th to May 31st. The number of working days is about 190 a year. The working week consists of 6 days, and the average length of the school day is between 5 and 7 hours, with lessons lasting 45 minutes and a break of 10 or 15 minutes each hour.

The Easter holidays last 6 days and the ski-ing holiday - in February - 7 working days. Secondary school pupils have, in addition, one working day's holiday each month - the date being fixed by the school.

SOCIAL QUESTIONS

Secondary education - unlikely elementary - is not at the present time free of charge. In the State schools, each pupil pays

50 marks[1] a term, but substantial reductions are made in the case of pupils with one or more brothers or sisters at secondary school. Similar reductions are made in the private schools, where fees are often considerably higher, especially in those schools which have recently put up new building or purchased equipment.

In cases where financial difficulties might put a stop to a child's schooling, fees may be remitted altogether, either in a State or a private school. In 1957-58, the number of children being educated free of charge amounted to 21,8 % of the secondary school population.

All text-books must be approved by the Schools' Management Board. They are paid for by the pupils themselves, but children from less well-off families can borrow them from the school libraries.

In order to assist the poorer pupils, the Finnish State awards a considerable number of scholarships each year. Certain private organisations make gifts or endowments, but as a result of post-war inflation, the value of these has diminished greatly.

The State makes a special grant for free medical visits for pupils in the 1st, 5th and 8th classes. Particular attention is paid to tracking down tuberculosis and to dental care.

For a very small charge (about 0,50 mk on the average), a meal is available to pupils in 86 % of the schools (1965).

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(1) Between £5 and £6.

Numbers of Pupils, Schools and Teachers (see also Supplement I)

Schools in 1964-65

NB. A = Finnish-language school B = Swedish-language school

	A	B	Total
State schools.....	124	18	142
Private schools.....	313	30	343
	437	48	485

Teachers in 1963-64

	A	B	Total
State schools.....	3,921	481	4,402
Private schools.....	6,807	611	7,418
	10,728	1,092	11,820

Pupils in 1964-65

	A	B	Total
State schools.....	81,934	8,507	90,441
Private schools.....	143,570	8,599	152,169
	225,504	17,106	242,610

The total number of secondary school pupils represents approximately 6 % of the population of Finland and just over 30 % of all school-age children.

TEACHERS

The same teaching qualifications, clearly specified for each subject, are required by both State and private schools. In fact, the amount of subsidy granted by the State to a private school depends in part on the number of its qualified teachers.

There are three types of teacher: permanent or regular teachers, supplementary teachers and those who teach by the hour. The regular teachers are divided into two categories: senior teachers (vanhempi lehtori) and junior teachers (nuorempi lehtori). In principle, the first category only take the upper school (the three highest classes) and should provide 24 hours' tuition a week; the junior and supplementary teachers give 26 hours. But, if necessary, and this is often the case, 30 hours' tuition must be given.

Regular and supplementary teachers are appointed to the State schools by the National Board of schools, after a general competitive examination. In the private schools, they are chosen by each school's administrative board. Once appointed, they cannot be dismissed from their posts except for serious disciplinary reasons.

The growth of the population, and the increasing numbers of children attending secondary school, have led to a difficult situation. Energetic measures have been taken to face up to this - for example, improvements in the teachers' salaries and working conditions.

EXAMINATIONS AND DIPLOMAS

Entrance examination

In order to enter secondary school, a child must pass a general examination at the age of 11, after four years' primary schooling. This entrance examination is the same throughout the country and in every school, and the subjects are set by the National Board of Schools. It takes place in the spring, on the

same day and at the same time, in schools all over Finland. Up to 1954, written tests were taken in religion, Finnish (or Swedish), mathematics and geography, but at the present time these are necessary only for mathematics and the mother language (Finnish or Swedish). The authorities take into account not only the examination results but also the candidate's primary school record and, in particular, the teachers' report.

A supplementary examination is held in the autumn for candidates who have not been able to sit for the spring test.

A pupil who has not been accepted can also try again the following year, but account will be taken of his age in comparison with that of the other candidates.

In 1959, out of 60,502 who sat for the examination, 52,609 (or 86,9 %) were accepted, but only 38,695 (or 73,6 % of pupils accepted) were able to begin their secondary studies. (See also Supplement!).

Promotion from one class to another

The marking system in the secondary schools is the same as in the primary schools. In order to go up to the next class, a pupil must have sufficiently good marks (between 5 and 10) in every subject. If he has a poor mark (4) in three subjects, he must stay another year in his old class. And if, the following year, he still has poor marks in three subjects, he is not allowed to continue his education in the same school. If a pupil has poor marks (4) in one or two subjects, but an average of more than 6, he can sit again, during the summer, for an examination in the subject, or subjects, in which he is weak. And if he passes, he goes up to the next class.

Higher examinations (See also Supplement II)

For passing from the middle to the upper school there is no special examination, and each pupil receives a diploma certifying that he has completed the first stage of his secondary education. This diploma is essential for certain occupations or Government posts.

The matriculation examination (or final examination in the upper school) is essential for anyone wishing to enter a university or higher educational college. It is also required for many private, municipal and State appointments.

Normally, every pupil who succeeds in reaching the highest class sits for the matriculation examination. The examination is in two parts, oral and written.

The oral examination takes place before and after the written examination, during the period between the beginning of March and at the latest, May 20th. The oral tests include questions bearing on all subjects taught in the highest class, with the exception of sports, gymnastics and drawing. An examination timetable is drawn up by the pupils themselves, submitted to the teachers and finally approved by the National Board of Schools. Pupils take the oral examinations in their own school, and their teacher is the examiner. However, school councillors, the principal, or a person appointed by the National Board of Schools can be present and, if necessary, intervene.

The written examination is held at the end of March or beginning of April. The questions are drawn up by the Matriculation Examination Board, whose members are nominated by the University of Helsinki and the National Board of Schools and appointed by the Ministry of Education. The examinations take place on the same day, and at the same time, in every

school, and the papers arrive in sealed envelopes. These may not be opened until the actual moment when the examination begins and a pupil must certify that the seal is unbroken. A second examination is held at the beginning of September, in the same conditions, for candidates who have failed in the spring.

The written examination includes both compulsory and optional tests. The compulsory tests are in four main parts: composition in Finnish (or Swedish); exercise and translation in the second national language; exercise and translation in the first foreign language (German, English, French, Russian or Latin); for the fourth test the student takes - according to which line he has chosen in school - either mathematics or a so-called "real" examination (réaalikoe) in the following subjects: religion, religious history, psychology, philosophy, history, social and economic sciences, physics, chemistry, biology and geography. There are between 1 and 7 questions in each of these subjects, and the pupil may answer a maximum of 10 questions.

In addition to these four compulsory tests, the pupil can choose another two additional subjects. If, for example, he has taken mathematics as one of the compulsory subjects, he can - for the additional, optional, test - choose either the "real" examination or two foreign languages.

There are three different marks for the written examination papers: approbatur (fair), cum laude approbatur (fairly good) and laudatur (good). For a test in which he fails, the candidate receives the mark of improbatur. A general mark, using the same form of words, is also given. In order to pass with the distinction of laudatur in the whole written examination, a candidate must have a total of at least 10 points in 4 subjects. (Approbatur = 1 point; cum laude approbatur = 2 points; laudatur

= 3 points). For a general cum laude approbatur, a minimum of 7 points in 4 subjects is needed. A good general mark is in fact very important for pupils who wish to continue their studies in a higher educational college or university.

It should be noted that an improbatur for composition in the candidate's own language automatically fails him or her, and this cannot be compensated for by a laudatur in another subject. On the other hand, a slight failure in one subject may be compensated by a good average standard achieved in other subjects. Composition in Finnish (or Swedish) normally covers as many as a dozen subjects, ranging over a very varied field: religious history, religion, history, philosophy, literature and poetry, biology, sports, current affairs, etc. It is judged primarily for its qualities of style.

As candidates for the matriculation examination are subject to a rigorous selection process in the three final classes of the upper school, failures in the examination itself are relatively few; the percentage remains fairly constant at about 10 - 15 %, and most of these pass in the following autumn. The candidates' average age is 19.

On leaving secondary school, the pupil receives two certificates: (1) the certificate awarded by the Matriculation Examination Board, which shows the marks for the written examination and gives him the right to style himself bachelor (ylioppilas); (2) the secondary school leaving certificate, issued by the school, and showing marks obtained in the subjects taught in the middle and upper schools.

SCHOOL CURRICULA AND SUBJECTS

Religious teaching in the middle school gives the pupils an outline, based on the Bible, of the Christian religion and of the life and activities of the Finnish Lutheran Church (or the Greek Orthodox Church), and should enable them to understand, and to adopt personally, either the evangelical or the orthodox faith.

Religious history and moral science, which are taught in the upper school, provide a deeper knowledge of religious movements. This teaching sets out the problem of the individual in relation to religion, stresses the importance of ethics and focusses attention on those outstanding men and women whose example is worthy of being followed.

Finnish (or Swedish) is taught in the middle school so that the pupils may learn grammar, the writing of essays, grammatical analysis etc. In the upper school, they go on to study the history of Finnish litterature, the Kalevala [1], classical and modern authors, composition and style, newspapers, etc. - the aim being to stimulate their interest in their own language and litterature.

History and social and economic sciences form a whole, and are taught gradually. Teaching covers both general history and the history of Finland, in order to give the pupils a broad picture of the most important events and of past civilisations and, in particular, of the connection between past and present times.

In the senior classes, greater attention is paid to the main historical events of modern times, while the history of Finland is examined afresh, particularly in its relation to the great international trends.

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(1) Finnish national epos.

A certain amount of time is also given to social sciences, and here the object is to explain the organisation of present-day Finnish society. This teaching also comprises economic science, with especial reference to the economic structure of the country.

The teaching of psychology and philosophy is centered on the basic principles in psychology, the main currents of thought, and on the doctrines of the great philosophers.

The natural sciences syllabus for the middle school is closely related to the flora and fauna of Finland and the neighbouring regions and, in the upper school, to biology. Sex education is not included as such in this syllabus. The pupils are also taught the working methods used in biological research.

The teaching of geography gives the pupils a picture of the various regions of the earth and of their differences of geology, climate, etc. At the same time, emphasis is laid on the need for collaboration and mutual understanding among the different peoples. Special attention is, naturally, paid to the geography of Finland. In the upper school, teaching includes the principles and methods of geographical and geolocical research, the study of maps, etc.

Physics lessons in the middle school should give a general picture of physical phenomena and of the use made by man of the natural forces. In particular, the pupils study the rules governing these phenomena and the relation between them. They also become acquainted with experimental research methods. In the upper school, the practical applications of electricity, optics and thermodynamics are studied.

Chemistry teaching gives the middle school pupils a general idea of chemical reactions and phenomena, based on experiments which they themselves carry out. In the upper school, they learn

about simple substances and the more important compounds, as well as the laws of chemistry and research techniques. In both chemistry and physics, stress is laid on the importance of the pupil's own work.

The teaching of mathematics develops the logical faculties and the ability to work methodically and rationally. It also includes the broad essentials of geometry, logarithms, etc. The pupils become accustomed to using words with precision and accuracy, and to formulating their own ideas.

In the study of modern languages, whether foreign or the second national language, considerable care is taken over pronunciation, as well as the teaching of grammar. Written exercises and translations are considered important. Since all students intending to go to university will have to consult a number of books in foreign languages, it is felt that the school should make this easier for them and help them to understand the texts. As far as possible the pupils are given practice in conversation.

It should always be remembered that Finnish is not in any way related to the Indo-European languages, and that Finnish pupils have considerable difficulty in understanding the structure of the Germanic and Latin languages. There are, for example, no articles or genders in Finnish, but there is, on the other hand, a rather complicated system of declension. As regards pronunciation, Finnish actually has no sounds corresponding to the English b, f and z, and many others.

In the upper school (provided that the language has been taught from the second year), the classical and modern authors are studied, and the pupils are given an idea of the culture of the country in question, its relations with Finland, etc.

As Latin is considered important to the learning of the Indo-European tongues, the teaching of Latin is based on a detailed study of its grammar and of its links with modern languages. The pupils learn enough to be able to translate classical Latin texts into their own language, while at the same time becoming acquainted with the literature and civilisation of the ancient Romans.

At the present time, English has taken first place from German as the most widely studied language in Finland's secondary schools. Latin comes third, and then French and Russian. In certain secondary classical schools, both Greek and Latin are taught.

Gymnastic exercises and the practice of sports are followed up by lessons in hygiene and medical care.

The applied arts course consists primarily of drawing. Later, the pupils receive an aesthetic tuition which equips them for further, and more extensive, studies. They are also taught the history of art.

The aim in teaching calligraphy is to give the pupils a feeling for beautiful handwriting, in accordance with the style now generally accepted in Finland.

Through handwork, the boys become familiar with materials and machinetools, while the girls are prepared for household duties.

In view of the fact that many pupils finish their secondary studies at the end of the middle school, it has been considered essential to organise various types of vocational training course.

TEACHING METHODS AND EQUIPMENT

The principles are as follows: active participation of the pupils, individualisation of teaching, community spirit and co-operation. For these principles to be put into practice, the number of pupils in each form should remain as low as possible. 25 is often said to be the ideal number, but the average in the Finnish-language schools is as high as 35,3 to a class. There are, however, considerably fewer than this in the upper school. In the Swedish-language schools, the average is 31,6.

New teaching equipment has been made available to the schools in the form of films, photographic slides, radio, tape recorders and television.

HIGHER EDUCATION

EXPANSIONS AND REFORMS

The first university in Finland was founded in 1640, at Turku, but it was not until after the country became independent that university life gained its present impetus.

At the moment, great changes are envisaged in higher education, and two reports on this subject were published in the spring of 1965. (1)

(1) The first, known as the Suomalainen report, from the name of the professor who was asked to prepare it,is in fact a programme of aid, intended to alleviate the situation caused by the shortage of professors and places in Finnish higher educational institutions.

This plan provides for the creation, from the autumn of 1965, of 1,200 new places in the universities and higher schools, which would receive additional grants for this purpose.

The second project - the "Ketonen project" - is the work of a small committee whom the President of the Republic asked, at the beginning of February 1965, to draw up a detailed report on the situation at the time and the future outlook.

From this report we learn that, according to official statistics and estimates, the number of new students will rise from 11,500 in 1964 to 17,000 in 1970 and 22,000 in 1980. As a result, the total number of students - 36,000 in 1964 - will become 80,000 in 1980.

The distribution of students among the different groups of subjects is as follows:-

Humanities (Faculties of Letters, Theology, Law, Political & Commercial Sciences)	1964	1980	Places available	Places required
	63 %	48 %	11,000	13,000
Natural sciences	21 %	27 %	4,000	13,000
Technical sciences	11 %	16 %	3,000	9,000
Medicine	4 %	8 %	2,000	4,000
Other subjects	1 %	1 %	200	1,000

In the committee's opinion, the only way of obtaining the extensions which it considered essential for the normal functioning of the universities and similar institutions, was for the State grants, which amounted to 120 million marks in 1964, to be increased to 155 million marks in 1965 and, gradually, to 441 million marks in 1980.

The Suomalainen project will undoubtedly be carried out, but the fate of the second plan is uncertain. The need for the proposed extension is readily conceded, but it is likely to be difficult to find the necessary funds.

Moreover, the view is held in university circles that it would perhaps be better, and would do more to raise teaching standards, to settle the financial situation of the auxiliary professors rather than recruit new ones whose situation would doubtless be just as uncertain.

THE UNIVERSITIES AND HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

There are at present 14 higher institutions of university level in Finland. Seven of them belong directly to the State, and the other seven, which were all founded on private initiative, are managed by professorial councils. The State, however, grants a subsidy of up to 75 % of the running expenses of universities and private institutions alike.

There are six universities: Helsinki University, founded in 1640 at Turku - the Swedish name of the city is Åbo - and transferred to the capital in 1828; Turku University, created on private initiative in 1920; Åbo Academy, Finland's only Swedish-language university, founded at Turku in 1917 as a private venture; and Oulu University, which dates from 1959.

In addition, the teachers' higher training school at Jyväskylä has lately changes its name and is now a university. The same applies to the higher school for Social Studies at Tampere: it has now the status of a university. The Ketonen plan provides for the founding in the near future of a university in eastern Finland; accordingly, academic institutions will be placed in Kuopio, Lappeenranta and Joensuu.

The following list shows the principal universities and higher educational establishments in Finland, together with the numbers of students at the beginning of September, 1965:-

University of Helsinki	16,745
University of Turku	4,777
Academic University of Åbo	1,172
University of Oulu	1,679
Higher School for Social Students, Tampere (now University of Tampere)	1,890

Teachers' Higher Training School, Jyväskylä (now University of Jyväskylä)	2,354
Helsinki Polytechnic School	3,017
Veterinary Higher School	124
Commercial Higher Schools:	
Helsinki (Finnish)	1,960
" (Swedish)	1,002
Turku (Finnish)	461
" (Swedish)	319
Teachers' Special Training College - Helsinki	205
Teachers' Special Training College - Turku	206
Total number of students for 1964/65	35,911

Ten years ago, the total number of students in Finnish universities and higher schools was 15,472.

In addition to these establishments, there are numerous higher institutes attached to the universities but with their own special statutes - for example, a gymnastic institute, dental school, pharmaceutical institute, etc.

An institution peculiar to Finland is the "summer university" or, more correctly, the summer university courses, in which more than 17,000 students took part in 1965. These courses in fact provide, on a regional basis, a third university term. They are organised primarily in the subjects taught in the Faculties of Letters, and take place at present in 17 Finnish towns (Hanko, Helsinki, Joensuu, Jyväskylä, Kokkola, Kotka, Kuopio, Lahti, Lappeenranta, Oulu, Pori & Rauma, Rovaniemi, Savonlinna, Seinäjoki, Tampere, Turku and Vaasa). These summer university courses last on an average one or two months. They are not co-ordinated, but depend entirely on local associations which organise them. Tuition is normally by university professors or lecturers, who devote part of their vacation to the courses. Stu-

dents can take approbatur and cum laude examinations, and even sometimes the laudatur. And the examination results are recognised by the universities.

In addition there are, of course, numerous schools specialising in various subjects: for example, the Fine Arts School in Helsinki (Ateneum) and the Higher School for Music (Sibelius Akatemia), as well as conservatoires of music in a number of other Finnish towns - that of Jyväskylä, in particular, has a very high standard of teaching. The armed services have a series of schools for training their staffs; the Staff College (Sotakorkeakoulu) is in Helsinki.

A national school of interpreters and translators has lately been set up in Tampere and Turku.

Any student who has passed the secondary matriculation examination can, in principle, enter university. In fact, the ever-rising tide of qualified candidates has led the faculties to adopt a system known as numerus clausus, under which only those students who have received a general mark of laudatur, or in certain cases cum laude, in the secondary matriculation examination are admitted. An entrance examination is held for the remaining candidates. But it is estimated that in a few years' time, about 50 % of Finland's students will not be able to find university places. Only in the case of certain unusual subjects (for example, Arabic, Greek or Sanskrit in the Faculty of Letters) can all students be accepted.

Foreign students are admitted without any restriction on numbers. They need only provide proof of enrolment at a university bers. They need only provide proof of enrolment at a university in their own country. In any case, there are very few of them - about sixty in all - partly on account of the language difficulty and

also because of the scarcity of Finnish Government scholarships for foreign students.

The number of students in the higher schools and universities has increased greatly in recent years. For example, the total number in 1954 - 15,472 - was smaller than the number now enrolled at Helsinki University alone. According to the latest statistics, there were more tnan 18,000 students at Helsinki University at the beginning of 1965 and, if the "black books" (1) are taken into account, more than 20,000.

EXAMINATIONS AND UNIVERSITY TITLES

In all faculties, the basic examination is the Kandidaatin Tutkinto, which approximates to an M. A. at an English university. In medicine, this examination qualifies the student only as regards the first, or theoretical, part of this studies, but it does entitle hi:; to replace a country doctor during the holiday period.

In the Faculty of Letters, the title of filosofian kandidaatti is required in order to become a senior secondary school teacher or occupy a post of any importance in the administration or the liberal professions.

For this examination, the student has a free choice of three subjects from among those taught in the Faculty. A very usual combination consists of first and second languages and, for the third subjects, either modern literature, psychology or education.

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(1) A "black book" is the name given to someone who works for the State or municipality, and is therefore not eligible for normal enrolment at a university, but who can sit for examinations there in the same way as an ordinary student.

For each subject, there are three separate stages: approbatur, cum laude approbatur and laudatur, and the curriculum for each different. The approbatur is awarded for a general knowledge of the subject, and the cum laude approbatur for a much more extensive knowledge. For the laudatur, the requirements are a complete mastery of the subject, the writing of an academic paper of about 100 typed pages on a theme chosen jointly by the student and the professor of the particular subject. In addition, the student must pass translation tests in two living languages (pro exercitio), or in Latin and one living language (in the Faculty of Letters, Latin is obligatory).

For each stage there are compulsory lectures and, every so often, an examination. For an approbatur, the compulsory lectures can, in certain cases, replace the final examination. For the cum laude, students must attend a "pro-seminar" - weekly cum laude, students must attend a "pro-seminar" - a weekly teach-in or session, presided over by a university lectures, where students who are at the same stage must give lectures, criticise those given by the others, etc. At the laudatur level, this session is called a seminar (seminaari), and the chairman is generally the professor of the subject under discussion. It is to such a seminar that a student must present his paper for the laudatur.

For a language degree, a stay of at least three months abroad is normally required and there are, in addition, periodical examinations in practical knowledge.

The final examination do not take place at the end of the year, but are held nine times during the year, with the student himself deciding on which date he should sit. The cum laude approbatur and laudatur finals are taken in two parts: the first, or written, part must be passed before a student can sit for the oral

examination. The examiner in the oral test is either the professor in the particular subject, his deputy or an associate professor whom he appoints. There is no examination jury.[1]

To obtain an M. A. or equivalent degree (filosofian kandidaatin tutkinto), one laudatur and two cum laude approbatur are required, or else two laudatur and one approbatur, all to be obtained within a year of taking the first of the final examinations.

After the filosofian kandidaatin tutkinto examination, comes the filosofian lisensiaatin tutkinto. For this, the candidate needs at least two laudatur and one cum laude approbatur, and he must present a rather longer academic paper and take part in a special seminar. For this, really extensive study is required, and the examination, both written and oral, is decidedly stiff.

Only after passing the lisensiaatin tutkinto, can a doctoral thesis be presented. This must be printed, and be of unquestionable originality. Otherwise there is no actual examination for a doctorate.

Before taking their M. A., or similar degree, candidates have for several years past been obliged to pass an examination in human sciences (humanisten tieteiden kandidaatin tutkinto). For this, two cum laude approbatur and one approbatur are required, and it entitles the successful candidate to teach in the middle school (or first stage of a secondary school).

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(1) A student who fails several times, and has reason to believe he has been treated unfairly by his professor, has the right to appeal for an examination jury, who will attend the next examination and decide whether or not he has the necessary qualifications. This procedure is, however, purely theoretical, and very few students have ever sought to put it into practice.

In the other faculties, the examinations follow essentially the same pattern as in the Faculty of Letters. (1)

It normally takes 5 or 6 years to obtain the title of "candidate in philosophy", 2 to 4 additional years for that of filosofian lisensiaatti and 2 to 4 years for a doctorate. But these examinations frequently take even longer as, in many cases, the filosofian kandidaatti are obliged to seek regular paid work, and this considerably retards their studies.

In addition to the title of filosofian kandidaatti, there is another, filosofian maisteri - an honorary title involving no additional examination. It is obtained by taking part in a promotion ceremony organised by the faculty every 3 - 7 years. This traditional ceremony goes back to the days when the University of Finland was founded, and is of a most solemn character. It is always attended by the President of the Republic, the Government and leading figures in Finnish life. Finland is, without doubt, the only country in the world where this mediaeval tradition is still in force.

PROFESSORS AND RESEARCH WORKERS

In the higher schools and universities, the teaching staff consists of established professors, appointed by the President of the Republic on the recommendation of the congregation, or governing body of the university or higher school in question. In

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(1) At Helsinki University, there is no actual Faculty of Letters. Instead, there is a Faculty of Philosophy, divided into two sections: Letters and Science. In everyday speech, and for the purposes of this study, the term "Faculty of Letters" refers to the Letters section of the Faculty of Philosophy.

addition to the established professors appointed to the various chairs, tnere are a certain number of auxiliary professors and of non-established professors [1] who do not form part of the congregation. For some time now, the established professors have been aided by associate professors (apulaisprofessori), who take charge of a considerat le part of the tuition. The holders of the various chairs have very reduced timetables (often only 4 hours a week), and the appointment of associate professors has therefore been found necessary. At the end of 1964, the total number of these various teachers was 592, of whom 250 were at the University of Helsinki.

In addition to the professors, there is a category of teachers with first-class qualifications known as dosentti, or deputy-professors, all of whom are doctors with a particularly brilliant thesis to their credit. But, by long-standing tradition, the post of dosentti is considered to be an honorary one, and the annual s: lary does not cover even two months of the most modest living expenses. For this reason, the dosentti are obliged to take on extra, better-paid work, and this does not leave them sufficient time to devote to their University pupils. In 1964, there were 505 dosentti in Finnish universities, of whom 357 were at Helsinki University.

Tuition at the approbatur level is usually left to the lecturers (who total 200). A doctorate is generally an essential qualification for a lectureship. In the language departments, a number of the lecturers are foreigners sent to Finland by their governments.

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(1) Professors who have had chairs created specially for them, in recognition of some outstanding piece of research. These chairs lapse when they leave the post.

A recently-created post is that of assistant (assistentti). These are young teachers who have not yet presented their thesis. They help the professors and take over a certain amount of the tuition.

To cope with the never-ending influx of new students, the universities have also been obliged to engage special teachers (usually filosofian kandidaatti, or possessors of an equivalent degree, who already have a job outside the University and can only work there for part of the time). In 1964, the total number of these special teachers in Finnish universities and higher schools was 1,843.

The method of nominating a professor to a vacant chair is a rather special one. He is chosen entirely on the basis of his academic qualifications. At the request of the faculty concerned, the congregation appoints three experts, whose task it is to examine the candidates' dossiers with the greatest care. If one of the candidates feels that he may be at a disadvantage compared with the others he can, in certain cases, ask for a year's respite, to enable him to publish some of his work and so improve his qualifications.

The three experts issue a public statement of their opinion of the candidates, classifying them in order of preference. The congregation bases its decision, which is later transmitted to the Chancellor, entirely on the opinion of the experts, who may sometimes be professors of foreign universities. When the Chancellor has expressed a favourable opinion, the nomination is confirmed by the President of the Republic.

ADMINSTRATION OF THE HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

There is little difference in the administration of the various higher schools. Almost all, whether private or State-maintained, have modelled themselves on the University of Helsinki.

At the head of each higher school is a Rector, elected by the congregation from among the professors. The congregation itself is an administrative council composed of all the established professors of the University. The universities of Helsinki, Turku, Åbo Academy, and Tampere, and the Commercial Higher Schools at Helsinki and Turku (Finnish-language) have an administrator-in-chief higher than the Rector, known as the Chancellor. His duties and position vary according to the institution in question. The Chancellor of Helsinki University has a privileged position, dating from the Middle Ages: he is the State's representative in the University, and the University's representative in the State. He has the right to attend any meeting of the Finnish Government at which university questions are discussed.

In all universities and higher schools, the professors are obliged to take part in the administration, by attending meetings of either the faculties or the congregation. The rule is that a council of professors should make a preliminary study of every matter which has to be decided by the Chancellor or by the Finnish Government.

The higher schools and universities come under three different Ministries, and some of the privately-maintained institutions have complete independence. Helsinki University has so great a degree of autonomy that control by the Ministry of Education is nearly formal. State control of the private higher schools and universities depends on the amount of subsidy they receive (around 70-75 % of their running costs).

The Ministry of Finance plays the most important part in everything concerning development plans for higher schools and universities, as it is through this Ministry that all grants must pass. At the present time, there is no central committee in charge of plans for extending higher education, and several projects are being studied simultaneously.

The Chancellor of Helsinki University is usually consulted whenever decisions of principle have to be taken regarding university matters, even if these do not directly concern Helsinki itself.

STUDENTS´ ASSOCIATIONS

The Finnish students´ associations date from the foundation of the first university, and are very active. In principle, the students of each university or higher school form a corporation divided into "nations" (osakunta) according to the students´ place of origin. The oldest "nations" have been in existence for more than three centuries. The students´ corporations own large blocks of flats and rooms, with restaurants, recreation rooms and conference halls.

The corporations frequently publish their own weekly journals. The most important of these is the Ylioppilaslehti (Students´ Journal) at Helsinki, which up to a few years´ ago was a major cultural periodical, with a circulation of 30,000. (1)

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(1) Membership of a "nation" or similar organisation is not compulsory but nearly every student enrolled at a university belongs to them. There are no actual membership fees but, on enrolling, each student pays a subscription to the "nation" and for the health service. In return, he receives a free copy of the students´ journal.

The students´ associations do a great deal of social work. They build residences for the poorer students, provide scholarships, study loans, etc., and it was their initiative which led to the creation of a students´ health service; this is subsidised by the State and provides almost free medical and dental care.

In contrast to the situation in neighbouring countries, political activities make little appeal to Finnish students. The three purely political associations for young people, all of which have socialist or communist leanings, have only managed to attract a few hundred out of nearly 40,000 students. This is presumably due to the fact that Finnish students, though coming from a wide variety of backgrounds (1), traditionally tend to have Conservative and bourgeois leanings.

(1) A recent enquiry into Finnish students´ backgrounds shows that they come from the following circles: farming - 18,9 %; liberal professions - 13,1 %; managerial classes or industry and commerce - 30,7 %; officials or white-collar workers - 16,7 %; working-class - 17,6 %; background unknown - 3 %.

POPULAR EDUCATION

AIMS

The term popular education, as applied to Finland, means a cultural activity aimed at adults and young people alike.

Although popular education is primarily concerned with social and general knowledge, and does not give the students any professional qualification, it is nevertheless closely connected with other branches of post-school education, and with the higher branches of professional training. This is shown by the curricula of the folk academies and correspondence schools.

The field of popular education in Finland includes the folk high schools, the civic and workers´ institutes, the work of the libraries, the study and lecture circles, courses organised by the associations for popular culture, correspondence schools and sports´institutes.

HISTORICAL SKETCH

The first libraries were established in about 1850 and, a little later - between 1860 and 1870 - the students began to organise popular lectures. At about the same time, the working classes

started to show an interest in musical activities. The foundation, in 1874, of Kansanvalistusseura (the Society for Popular Culture), which is still in existence, marked the beginning of the systematic development of popular education in Finland. The Society did especially important work in the fields of music and libraries and, in about 1880, this bore fruit in the formation of youth and workers´ associations. The first folk high school was founded in 1889 and the first workers´ institute in 1899. The study circles came into being in about 1900, and the correspondence schools after the first world war.

Popular instruction for Swedish-speaking people is dealt with by separate organisations, of which the oldest, founded in 1882, is called "The Friends of Swedish Folk Schools" (Svenska Folkskolans Vänner).

THE STATE AND POPULAR EDUCATION

The State subsidises the activities of libraries and study circles and of folk high schools, civic, workers´ and sports´ institutes, within the framework of special legislation. The role of the State is primarily that of financial assistant; it takes no part in organisation. Moreover, popular education has come into being entirely through the efforts of private individuals and civic and workers´ institutes, which belong to the municipalities (they control about 50 % of the latter).

In view of the considerable size of State subsidies to the various organisations, a special department has been set up in the National Board of Schools to control the administration of grants and to support and develop popular education. The Board is aided in this task both by the State commission for popular

culture, whose members are chosen by the Ministry of Education from among the representatives of popular cultural organisations, and by the consultative commission for libraries, a specialist body.

POPULAR EDUCATION PROVIDED FOR BY LEGISLATION AND SUBJECT TO THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Folk High Schools

The folk high schools (or people's institutes) have great freedom of organisation. They provide principal cources lasting between 6 and 9 months, and sometimes special one-month courses. Their aim is to give further instruction in general civic subjects to people aged between 16 and 25-30 (and, in exceptional cases, to older people), so that they may have a solid foundation on which to base subsequent, more advanced, studies. Tuition is designed primarily to arouse the pupils' interest and to develop their personalities. The schools are residential, and therefore able to make the most of all educational possibilities.

The principal branches of education in all folk high schools are Finnish (or Swedish), literature, history and sociology. In the majority tuition is also given in religion, the science of teaching or, alternatively, ethics, and in geography, natural sciences, music, hygiene and physical culture.

During the first year, studies are related to family and civic life, and include domestic skills, handicrafts (for both men and women), mechanics, shorthand and typing, etc. Such subjects have a close bearing on the pupils' future, although in fact the people's institutes do not provide actual professional training.

Pupils can then do a second or third year in a folk academy (Kansankorkeakoulu), where the education is on lines similar to those of the official higher schools (with written tests in the final examination). This prepares students for admittance to the proper professional schools.

As the folk high schools are residential, work is done in an atmosphere which accords with the aims and views of their founders, who are generally cultural or youth organisations. These institutes account for 50 % of the students; the remainder are divided among various Christian associations (45 %) and workers' organisations (5 %).

The pupils at the folk high schools were originally drawn from the better-off farming circles, but now that a secondary-school education is widespread in that section of the community, most of the students are from the urban and rural working-classes.

There are at present 83 folk high schools, with a total, in 1964-65, of 6,000 pupils - the highest number since they were founded. About 5 % to 6 % of each age-group passes through the folk high schools; an average of 25 % to 30 % of the pupils are men or boys. 25 % of the folk high school pupils go on to the folk academies.

Since 1926, the institutes receive a State subsidy of up to 70 % of their running costs. All except one belong to private organisations.

Civic and Workers' Institutes

The 1926 law defines these institutes as scholastic establishments "designed to assist the education of adults by providing them, in their free time, with knowledge useful in civic life and with a good basis for further studies and, in addition, to aid the

progress of self-tuition, intellectual development and the profitable employment of the citizen's leisure".

In 1964, there were 146 civic and workers' institutes (20 of them for Swedish-speaking students), with a total of more than 100,000 pupils, of whom one-third were men. 95 % of these institutes belong to the municipalities. They have been set up in every town and commune, and in 63 rural communes. Their number is constantly increasing, and they will soon cover the entire country.

The curricula for the different branches of study are extremely varied. For some time past, the majority of pupils take languages; the second national language and English are the ones mainly studied, and German also has an important place. In several institutes there are French study circles. In contrast, almost no one learns Russian.

The main teaching is in social, artistic and economic subjects. The most popular study circles are those which bring practical benefit and have a definite aim (secondary, professional and, particularly, commercial studies). The State financial subsidy is between 70 % and 85 %.

Sports' Institutes

Under the 1926 law, the sports' institutes are residential colleges providing instruction in various branches of physical culture, together with practical preparation and, in addition, general and civic tuition. Within the framework of this law, Finland has four sports' institutes, of which two are of advanced level, providing courses of at least 10 months' duration for the training of physical culture instructors. These are, in fact,

people's sports' institutes where physical culture occupies the principal place.

The State subsidy is from 70 % to 85 %.

Libraries

The libraries belong to the local municipalities. Each municipality has its library, under the supervision of a director appointed by the municipal council.

According to the 1961 law, the libraries receive a grant amounting, in country districts, to two-thirds of their expenses and, in the towns and communes, to one-third. As regards administration, the country is divided into districts, for which inspectors are responsible. General administration comes under the popular culture section of the National Board of Schools.

In 1964, there were 552 main libraries and 2,446 secondary libraries, with a total of 7,161,000 books. 16,370,000 loans were made to 770,000 readers.

In addition to local libraries, there are special libraries for hospitals, work-shops, ships, lighthouses, etc.

Study Circles

A law passed in 1964 on subsidies for study circles defines their aim as being "to assist the evolution of young people and adults by offering them the opportunity for organised study and for turning their leisure to educational advantage, according to established teaching principles and without political propaganda".

There are four study centres under the supervision of the National Board of Schools, and these centres, in turn, direct the activities of the study circles. The latter are, for the Finnish-speaking population, the Opintotoiminnan Keskusliitto (Central

Study Federation) and Työväen Sivistysliitto (Workers´Educational Association) and, for the Swedish speakers, Svenska Föreläsnings - och Studiecirkelförening (Swedish League for Study Circle Activity) and Folkets Bildningsförbund (People´s Cultural Association). In 1964, study circles numbered approximatelv Association). In 1964, study circles numbered approximately 3,000. There are, therefore, relatively few of them in Finland, but this is mainly because the civic and workers´institutes carry out a large part of the work in the field of popular culture that is done in other Nordic countries by study circles. Moreover, there are 4,000 primary study circles for young people who have finished their primary education.

Lectures

Lectures are organised in the same way as study circles. The necessary funds are granted by the State to the study centres, which organise - either directly or through their affiliated associations - some 750 lectures each year. The commission for popular culture at Helsinki University organise lectures for the popular cultural associations.

No exact statistics are available as regards lectures organised directly by the civic and workers´institutes.

Correspondence Courses

Correspondence schools form part of the popular cultural associations, and are non-profit-making. They have about 50,000 students a year, and school subjects form a large part of their curriculum.

Co-ordination of Work in the Field of Popular Culture

The co-ordinating organisation for the people's institutes is the Suomen Kansanopistoyhdistys (Finnish Folk High School Association) and, for the civic and workers' institutes, the Työväenopistojenliitto (Union of Workers' Institutes). Each has its own publication - Kansanopistolehti (Folk Higher School Journal) and, for the workers', Opistolehti (The Institute Journal).

In the international field, the popular cultural associations have set up a collaborating commission which publishes an information bulletin in English, called "Adult Education".

PROFESSIONAL AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS, & TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS

Professional teaching began in Finland in the 17th century, but the first actual professional schools were founded in 1842.

The system now in force dates from 1920. These institutions (ammattikoulut) are primarily municipal schools, receiving considerable financial support from the State (65 % of their running expenses). Since 1958, when a new law was promulgated, there have been both State-provided central professional schools (8 in number) and municipal professional schools (47). These schools can each take about 8,000 pupils a year. The boys' courses last three years, and the girls' two years.

The age of entry is 18, and pupils must have a certificate of primary education (8-year course).

Three other categories of professional school have also been set up under the 1958 law: specialised professional schools, vocational schools and vocational institutes. The first group are usually subsidized by private organisations or societies. There are 18 of them, and studies last either three or four years, according to the course.

The vocational schools work on the basis of primary education; teaching here is entirely theoretical. The vocational institutes

work on the basis of the middle school, or first stage of the secondary school.

TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS

These are of two types: technical institutes and technical schools. The aim of the second group is to train qualified technicians. Studies last three years, and entrants must have a certificate of primary education and also two years' practical experience in a technical establishment. There are written entry examinations in Finnish (or Swedish) and in mathematics. At the present time, there are twenty technical schools, taking in all more than 2,000 new pupils each year.

The technical institutes train engineers to a professional level slightly below that of engineers graduating from the Polytechnic School. Studies last four years. To qualify for entrance, a candidate must have a sedondary school (first stage) certificate and either sixteen months' practical experience or a technical school diploma. At present there are fourteen technical institutes, taking a total of some 1,000 new pupils.

OTHER PROFESSIONAL INSTITUTIONS

There are many other professional institutions, such as agricultural, maritime, commercial, military and nursing schools, etc. They either come directly under the State or receive large grants from the Government which, in general, gives considerable support to all forms of education.

At the present time far-reaching plans, providing for a considerable increase in the number of professional schools, are

being studied. Teaching in the professional schools will change and expand gradually, with the coming into force of the reform measures setting up the single school. The professional schools will then, in effect, work on the basis of the secondary school (first stage) certificate.

TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT OF TEACHERS

NURSERY SCHOOLS

There are four lastentarhaseminaari, or training colleges for nursery school teachers, in Finland. Studies last two years, and candidates must be not less than 19 years old and have good health and either the certificate of secondary education (first stage) or the baccalaureat (in fact, more than two-thirds of the candidates h..ve their baccalaureat). They should prefer bly be able to play the piano and sing. One term's practical experience is required by some training colleges and considered advisable to others. The future nursery school teachers are also recommended to take courses in child care and housecraft and to hold a university degree in education or psychology. These recommendations are, in effect, compulsory, as the number of girls seeking entrance to the training colleges is so great that who have not taken the "recommended" courses are almost automatically eliminated. 10 % of the applicants are accepted.

The main subjects taught in the training colleges are child care, psychology, the science of education and teaching methods. In addition to theoretical instruction, importance is attached to day-to-day practical experience ("sandwich" courses).

TRAINING OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The system of training both men and women primary school teachers goes back to 1863. The gradual adoption of the single-school system will entail many changes, and a number of projects are at present under consideration.

There are at present two types of institution for training primary school teachers: the teachers' training schools (seminaari), of which there are 11, and the teachers' training colleges (opettajakorkeakoulu), numbering 4. The first group work on the basis of the middle school, or first stage of secondary school, and train the future teachers in four years. On leaving primary school, candidates must take a two-year preparatory course equivalent to middle school education.

In the training colleges, which produce some 60 % of the teachers, they are trained in two years, on the basis of the secondary matriculation examination.

In the teachers' training schools, three terms' practical experience are required, and in the colleges, two terms.

Because the primary schools have, up to the present time, usually had only two or three teachers, they have had to be qualified to give tuition in all primary school subjects from the first to the sixth form. And since 1964 an additional subject has been added - either a foreign language or the second national language. Teaching will, moreover, be further extended with the gradual adoption of the primary school reform.

The present trend is increasingly for teachers to specialise in one subject or group of subjects. This is already taking place in the case of handwork, music, housecraft, physical culture and sports, etc.

At the present time, instruction in the teachers' training schools and colleges is concentrated mainly on theoretical subjects and on matters related to psychology, teaching and education. But this is considered inadequate, and plans are now being put into effect to increase the training period by a further year.

The training of teachers for the civic schools follows a different pattern, as these schools appoint many more specialist teachers, particularly for the following subjects: wood and metalwork, handwork for girls, housecraft, rural economy, metallurgy and electricity, commercial subjects, the second national language, foreign languages, physical culture and sports.

Under the 1964 law, there are four training schools and two training colleges for civic school teachers. As a general rule, established teachers can specialise by means of a one-year course, although for technical subjects, two years are required.

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The basis of the secondary school system is that each teacher should give tuition in only one subject (or, at most, two). A high degree of specialisation is, therefore, required.

These teachers are trained at a university or in institutions specialising in certain subjects, such as drawing, handwork, singing, gymnastics and sports. In order to become a junior secondary school teacher (nuorempi lehtori), the examination for a "candidate in human sciences" (humanisten tieteiden kandidaatti) must be passed; this corresponds rather approximately to a B.A. A senior teacher (vanhempi lehtori) must pass a higher

examination - that of filosofian kandidaattitutkinto.[1] For the first degree, an average of three to four years´study is required, and for the second, five or six years.

In the universities, all tuition is given with a view to study or research. A language student, for example, may learn more about the history of the language, and questions of philology, than about its practical use.

Graduates must, therefore, be given practical experience in the so-called teachers´training lyceums where, under the supervision of the head professor - (yliopettaja) - generally the holder of a doctorate - they follow a model teaching course lasting two terms. There are at present 8 of these institutions (7 Finnish and 1 Swedish).

Before going to the training lyceum, the future "lehtori" must take a preparatory course in education. Then, in the lyceum, he attends lessons given by the head professor in his subject or group of subjects (there are, on an average, about 100 lessons a term), and will himself give from 10 to 16 lessons under supervision each term. He must also criticise the work of the other future teachers, take part in weekly discussions and lecture on teaching methods and other educational questions.

During this stage of the training, the future teacher generally takes an examination in school management, a university examination in education and a psychology examination.

In order to become a professor at a teachers´training lyceum, higher qualifications are needed. The candidate´s teaching ability must be approved by a commission and, he must have a very good

(1) This has nothing to do with philosophy, but is the name given to the examination corresponding approximately to the M. A. (cf. chapter on university examinations).

diploma in education, as well as strong qualifications in the subjects which he wished to teach.

THE SHORTAGE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

At the present time, all technically qualified teachers can easily find an interesting post. They are needed primarily in the capital and otner large towns, but in certain subjects, such as mathematics, there is a lack of qualified teachers in every part of the country. According to a recent estimate, the number of so-called "non-qualified" teachers [1] amounted to 45 % of the total number in the secondary schools. But it should be realized that this lack of qualification is often a purely formal one, and that the non-qualified teachers frequently perform their task with the greatest competence.

Energetic measures have been taken recently to try to remedy the situation but, owing to the considerable length of time it takes to train a teacher (six-and-a-half years), no arly solution can be envisaged.

SHORTAGE OF OTHER CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS

As a general rule, all teachers are required to have a good theoretical and practical knowledge of their profession and, in

(1) A "non-qualified" secondary school teacher is, in this context, one whose practical qualifications are entirely up to standard, but who lacks part of his or her degree. In languages, for instance, there are many teachers who are bi-lingual in Finnish and Swedish, and have years of teaching experience, but have for some reason been unable to finish the usual university courses. Other such teachers have a degree but have not gone on to the teachers' training lyceum.

addition, a definite standard of training and of educational qualification, and to have taken the appropriate examinations and courses.

In almost all fields of activity, the lack of teachers is most seriously felt. Finland, until very recent times an essentially agricultural country, is now a modern, industrialised State, and the structure of life has changed so greatly that all forecasts have the structure of life has changed so greatly that all forecasts have provided inadequate. The schools and professional institutions ought to be accepting more pupils than they are at present but, for lack of teachers, they have to impose a limit. It should be noted, in this connection, that salaries in the teaching profession are often lower than those of industry.

Plans for largescale improvements at all stages of education are being drawn at the present time.

FINLAND: SCHOOL STATISTICS

PRIMARY SCHOOLS

TYPE OF SCHOOL	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS			NUMBER OF STUDENTS			NUMBER OF TEACHERS		
	Finnish	Swedish	Total	Finnish	Swedish	Total	Finnish	Swedish	Total
Primary Schools Proper	5 097	400	5 497	412 441	22 018	434 459	17 771	1 131	18 902
Civic Schools	486	49	535	80 904	4 364	85 268	3 934	234	4 168
Total	5 583	449	6 032	493 345	26 382	519 727	21 705	1 365	23 070
Total %	92.6	7.4	100	94.9	5.1	100	94.1	5.9	100

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

TYPE OF SCHOOL	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS				NUMBER OF STUDENTS				NUMBER OF TEACHERS 1965-66		
	Finnish	Swedish	Total	%	Finnish	Swedish	Total	%	Finnish	Swedish	Total
State Secondary Schools	128	18	146	23.8	83 904	8 141	92 045	32.3	4 113	467	4 580
Private (State subsidized) Secondary Schools	324	31	355	57.8	159 199	8 708	167 907	58.9	7 685	613	8 298
Municipal Junior Secondary Schools	107	6	113	18.4	24 012	979	24 991	8.8	1 125	69	1 194
Total	559	55	614	100	267 115	17 828	284 943	100	12 923	1 149	14 072
Total %	91.0	9.0	100		93.7	6.3	100		91.8	8.2	100

The Secondary School is usually based on 4 grades of Elementary School. The normal age of transfer from Elementary to Secondary School is 11, but Secondary Schools also accept applicants from higher grades of Elementary School. The number of pupils in grade 4 in Elementary School: 86 000 in 1965-66. Number of pupils who were, according to their age and grade, eligible for entrance into Secondary School: approximately 90 000 in 1966.

ENTRANCE INTO (JUNIOR) SECONDARY SCHOOL 1966

		% of the applicants	*% of those who passed*	*% of the average age group 90 000*
Number of applicants for entrance into Secondary School, grade 1	64 832			67.5
– passed	60 763	93.7		66.4
– failed	4 069	6.3		4.5
– accepted	48 067	74.1	79.1	53.4
– not accepted because of shortage of accomodation	12 696	19.6	20.9	14.1

MATRICULATION FROM (SENIOR) SECONDARY SCHOOL (= GYMNASIUM) 1966

	Finnish	*Swedish*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Private Students*	*Total*
SPRING 1966						
applicants	13 913	1 092	6 387	8 618	165	15 170
– passed	11 898	988	5 386	7.500	100	12 986
– failed %	10.9	9.5	15.7	13.0	39.4	14.4
AUTUM 1966						
applicants	1 798	98	885	1 011	54	1 950
– passed	1 469	80	706	843	31	1 580
– failed %	18.3	18.4	20.2	16.6	42.6	19.0
SPRING 1967						
applicants	15 357	1 180			198	16 537

Totally 14 566 passed in 1966 (96 % of the applicants), 4 % failed. Those who fail in the spring have a second chance in the autum of the same year.

Supplement II

THE SCHOOL REFORM IN FINLAND

Bill for a law on the bases of the school system

From the existing, partly parallel forms of school, the primary school and civic school (=upper stage of the elementary school) and the (junior) secondary school, a nine-year Basic School of the comprehensive type is to be formed. Completion of this Basic School will fulfil the requirement of compulsory education.

This Basic School constitutes a part of the municipal school system which can even include (senior) secondary schools (=gymnasiums), trades training institutes and kindergartens.

The bill now introduced confirms the outlines for the school reform for a transitional period until the complete and final legislation has been passed. According to the bill, the school reform must be implemented in its entirety sixteen years after the law has entered in force. It is proposed that the municipal school system and the Basic School will be established in all municipalities within ten years and that the pedagogic changes in the Basic School in general will be implemented class by class in seven years after the introduction of the school system.

THE PRESENT SCHOOL SYSTEM

Finland's present school system comprises the school for compulsory education, primary school, which is divided into a 6-year primary school proper and a 2-year (partly 3-year) civic school which follows immediately after it. This form of school is maintained by the local authorities. It is free of charge for all pupils and provides free school books, free school meals, free transportation to and from school and other social benefits. Trades training schools of worker level are based on the syllabus of this school.

Besides primary schools there are state, private and municipal schools: usually 5-year (junior) secondary schools, followed by gymnasiums, i.e. senior secondary schools. The (junior) secondary school continues from the syllabus of class IV of the primary school. The state defrays the greatest part of the costs of these schools; however, school fees are charged the pupils and they must also buy their school books, pay for school meals and transportation.

The primary school system of some municipalities includes a junior secondary school. It is free of charge and provides the same benefits as the primary school.

(Junior) secondary school and senior secondary school are almost invariably required for university studies and for higher occupational education.

Pupils are generally admitted to secondary school after four years primary schooling and a special entrance examination, usually at the age of 11 years. Although the secondary school has become increasingly common in the last few years, the pupil's home district and the financial means of the parents affect the choice of education. At present, over a half of the yearly

number of pupils move on to (junior) secondary school, and it is calculated that this ratio will rise to 75-80 per cent by 1975.

The upper classes of the primary school will, consequently, gradually disappear and the fee-charging secondary school will become the principal form of upper schooling.

As teaching in the (junior) secondary school is largely preparation for the senior stage (gymnasium), it does not satisfy in all respects the requirements of increasingly generalised compulsory schooling. On the other hand, the (junior) secondary school, which provides a broader general education, offers better opportunities for further studies and job placement. The maintenance of two different, parallel forms of school will create new difficulties and it is in order to avoid them that reform of the school system is considered necessary.

BASIC PRINCIPLES

According to the government proposal, the following basic principles should be applied in the school reform:

- The school system must be standardised to provide instruction of the same general level and content for all children attending Basic School, but nevertheless gradually permitting a choice of syllabus and subjects. The actual specialisation in different lines of study will not start until completion of basic schooling. Even the instruction given after Basic School will be organised by co-ordinating all types of school into an entity which will provide different possibilities for studies up to the senior level.
- The school system will be based on a nine-year basic school

intended for all children. The pupil who completes the syllabus will have completed his compulsory education.

- The (junior) secondary school side by side with the primary school has become increasingly important as a general school for compulsory education and there is now a realisation that this course of instruction belongs to basic education and corresponds to its increasing standards. The important and central features of the teaching in (junior) secondary school will be incorporated into the Basic School and this will be built up by combining the present primary school proper, the civic school and the (junior) secondary school into a comprehensive school, Basic School, which will be responsible for basic education.

- Not all basic education can be identical. The knowledge and skills which basic education must impart are increasing steadily and the abilities and interests of pupils differ. Besides the knowledge and skills to be acquired by everybody, the scheme of instruction must incorporate elective subjects which are calculated to promote the intellectual, manual, ethical and esthetic development of the young. In the highest stage of the Basic School, each pupil must be able to choose from elective syllabuses and, to a limited extent, also elective subjects, the course of study that is suitable for him; those who complete the school syllabus must, after fulfilling certain conditions, have the same chances of continuing their studies.

- As an examination such as the entrance examination for secondary school cannot always result in a correct selection of pupils, it must become possible to ascertain the aptitudes and interests of the pupils over a fairly long period. This presupposes that instruction in a foreign language or the other

domestic language is begun when the pupils attain 9-10 years of age, and that a number of changes can be introduced in the material of other subjects in the fourth, fifth and sixth classes of the Basic School. During the first six years of Basic School, the class teacher will be responsible for instruction, but gradually special teachers for certain subject will be introduced on an increasing scale until in the three highest classes they will do most of the teaching.

- The formal conditions for school attendance must be similar for all Basic School pupils to prevent the financial standing of the parents, the length of schooling and associated factors from influencing the pupil's choice of education. All stages of the Basic School must be free and include the same social benefits both for these reasons and because attendance at Basic School implies the completion of the compulsory education.

- As the Basic School is a general compulsory-education school and because, from the point of view of supervision alone, it is not expedient to entrust the management of a school financed solely by public funds to private hands, the Basic School must be owned and managed by the community. As the state is obviously unable to organise a school system of the scope of the Basic School in such a way it would fit smoothly into the local conditions, and as the primary school system is already a municipal undertaking, the Basic School must be a municipal school. It may be purposeful in certain cases for both teaching and administrative reasons to incorporate also gymnasiums and trades training schools with the Basic School. It must therefore be possible to make also the education which follows the Basic School a municipal responsibility. The

organisation known as the municipal school system must therefore always embrace the Basic School but must be able to take in also the gymnasium and other occupational institutions which are based on the Basic School syllabus. It must be possible, if the municipality so desires, to incorporate the kindergarten as well, which can be developed into a preparatory school for the Basic School.

- The formal conditions for further studies after Basic School must be organised so that the parents' financial position and the pupils' home district do not influence decisively the choice of education.

EXPENDITURE

The State's share of the operating expenses will be 73 per cent, according to the government proposal. The government expects that once the Basic School system is realised the operating costs will grow by 198 million marks. The State should be responsible for 190 million of the total and the local authorities for 8 million marks. The extra expenditure on new Basic School buildings is estimated at 185 million marks, of which the State would provide in the form of subsidies and loans 106 million marks and the local authorities 79 million marks. The operating costs of the school system would rise by roughly 30 per cent after the school reform has been finally accomplished.

THE MUNICIPAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

In accordance with the basic principles, local authorities will be responsible for the organisation of Basic School instruction.

They can do this by maintaining either alone or together with another local authority the necessary number of Basic Schools or by making use of private or State-owned schools. Communal co-operation can be voluntary or by government order when voluntary co-operation proves impossible.

As regards senior secondary schools (gymnasiums), the government considers that it is primarily the responsibility of the State and unions of municipalities to establish independent gymnasiums and occupational schools for the need of several municipalities. It is even suggested that communes can complement their school system through co-operation agreements with gymnasiums and occupational schools which are maintained by other authorities.

In addition, it is suggested that the State should maintain schools for special purposes and, in certain cases, even support schools which operate parallelly to the Basic School, e.g. in order to meet the school requirements of a linguistic minority in a locality.

INST JCTION AND CURRICULUM

The decrees on the structure and character of the nine-year Basic School foresee that it is to be divided into a lower stage which consists of the first six classes and an upper stage which comprises the last three classes. The curriculum in the lower grade must be of roughly the same content for all. Only in the upper grade is instruction to be differentiated through elective courses and subjects.

The syllabus of the Basic School, according to the proposal, must comprise religion, ethics, local geography, mother tongue,

history, civics, mathematics, physics, chemistry, history of natural sciences, geography, gymnastics, drawing, music, handicraft, home economy and subjects with a close bearing on commerce and industry which will help in choosing an occupation.

It is proposed that the instruction in religion will remain unchanged in the Basic School.

The choice of syllabus and subjects for a pupil in the upper grade of the Basic School will be made by the parents from the possibilities available after they have received from the school an evaluation of the pupil's aptitudes. The school can, however, change a syllabus or subject if this is considered necessary for the success of the pupil.

Mr. R. H. Oittinen, Minister of Education, has made a statement concerning the teaching of languages. He asserts that the number of children studying Swedish in the Basic School will not decrease but rather increase.

The Minister of Education mentions that language teaching has become a focal issue in the debate on the Basic School reform in recent times. Many factors must be taken into consideration, and the solution cannot be passed only on a single point of view.

The government proposal is based on the report of the Poijärvi Committee and thus differs from the proposal of the Basic School Committee which recommended that the decision on language instruction should be left to the local authority. The National Board of Schools, however, did not consider this proposal to be practical because the language programme in the compulsory education stage should be similar everywhere, enabling the children to transfer without difficulty from one school to another when their parents move to another locality. It was also feared that difficulties would arise in the training of teachers.

The government has sought to avoid these difficulties by suggesting that in general English should be the first and obligatory foreign language in all localities. Furthermore, the government has expressed the opinion that the other language should be the second official language, Swedish in Finnish schools and Finnish in Swedish schools. This language should, however, be elective, together with certain practical subjects. Those who study the second domestic language and are interested in and have an aptitude for languages, should be able to study also French, Russian and German in the upper grade.

English has been chosen as the first foreign language because it is a major universal language of great importance in both practical use and for further studies.

However, as it is important for the Swedish-speaking section of the population to master Finnish, the government considers that there is reason to enable pupils in Swedish-language schools to choose Finnish instead of English as the first language.

The Swedish language is very important for the Finnish-speaking population in Finland as it is the country's second language, Minister Oittinen points out. An endeavour should therefore be made to improve the command of Swedish. However, this cannot be done by making the second domestic language obligatory because language instruction would then take too much time in the Basic School at the expense of practical subjects, and the study of two languages would be too difficult for many pupils.

On the other hand, the government has considered it possible to make English and the second domestic language preconditions for entrance to the gymnasium. This would certainly preserve study of the second domestic language at least on the present scale.

The government has also regarded it as important that instruction be provided in both English and the second domestic language in population centres where the number of pupils warrants it. Some of the pupils would study English, the rest Swedish. As the result of these arrangements, and because the number of pupils studying languages will increase after the Basic School reform, the number of children studying the Swedish language will not decrease but sooner increase compared with the present number.

Supplement III

EDUCATIONAL POLICY, PLANNING, FINANCE AND RESEARCH

AIMS AND POLICY OF THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Broad National Aims of Education

Although society has not set any uniform or general educational aims for the Finnish educational system, Finnish democracy, religion and language as well as other aspects of life in Finland affect all educational work. There are, however, clearly defined aims for the various levels and forms of education.

It is stipulated in the Finnish Constitution (17th July, 1919) that the State shall maintain at its expense or, if necessary, subsidize schools providing general education or higher popular education (79 §). Furthermore, the instruction in the primary schools shall be free to all (80 §). The State shall also maintain or, when necessary, subsidize with public funds educational institutes providing vocational training for technical professions, in agriculture and its ancillary occupations, in commerce, navigation and its fine arts.

According to the present Act on Primary Education the primary schools shall provide the citizens with the necessary basic education. The primary school shall also inculcate moral principles in its pupils and impart to them the theoretical and practical knowledge which they will need in their every day life. The purpose of the primary school is also to encourage post-school education as well as the cultural interests of young people. It is laid down in respect of the training of primary school teachers that it should further both the mental and physical development of the student. The teacher training institute shall also guide the student towards independent acquisition of knowledge and skills and to their adaption to the teachers task.

The aim of the secondary school is to develop the pupils into independent, discriminating and socially aware individuals who, when at their best, are versatile, balanced and intellectually receptive. The training of secondary school teachers aims at an ever deepening penetration into the subject of instruction, an ability to apply in practice the theoretical knowledge acquired by the student, the development of a firm intellectual discipline and the capability of conducting independent research work.

Due to their specific character, the schools which provide vocational training have each their own aims and tasks. The purpose of the technical vocational schools is e.g. to train technicians for tasks of a level which involves ia. organization of work and foremanship, by providing the students, on the basis of more extensive general knowledge and in addition to a sufficient amount of technical knowledge, with the practical training and skills necessary for the techno-economic fields.

The educational aims of the institutes of higher education and the universities are defined in the legislation referring to them.

The aim of the University of Helsinki, which is to promote independent research and scientific education.

Recent Changes

A reform of the school system in accordance with the principles of the comprehensive school is presently under preparation in Finland. The aim of the basic school, namely to provide its pupils with a general basic education, was particularly stressed in the report (1966: A12) of the Government Committee on the School Reform, which has planned the organization of the future basic school. The long-range aim of the basic school is civilized man, characterised by qualities which enable him to embrace and assimilate the global spiritual and cultural heritage, to cooperate with his fellow men and by harmony of personality, independence and a power of judgement.

Expressed Government Policies in Education

The State regulates and supervises closely the system of education in Finland. The official educational policy is clearly expressed in legislation. In addition, the Government above all the Ministry of Education, and the National Board of Schools lay down the principles of educational policy. The committees appointed by the Government to investigate educational problems and the superior school authorities also influence educational policy considerably. In some cases, the opinions expressed by individual citizens and by the press may also be of considerable importance for the formulation of educational policies.

During the last two decades, the system of education has undergone a rapid development. The six-year primary school with its day and evening continuation classes had developed into an eight-year primary school which may be extended by an optional ninth year depending on the decision of the municipal authorities. Instruction in foreign languages has recently been introduced in the primary schools. The inclusion of the municipal junior secondary schools in the primary school system has made it possible for many pupils of poor means to acquire a junior secondary school certificate. With the spread of special auxiliary classes it has been possible to improve continuously the school education of children whose mental development is slow. The number of small schools is decreasing constantly. New modern school buildings have been constructed particularly for the civic schools, i. e. the upper level of the primary schools. As school transport has become more general the educational facilities for pupils from outlying districts have improved.

The development of the secondary school has been characterised by an enormous increase in the number of pupils. Presently about half of all the pupils in the IV - VI grades of the primary schools continue their education in secondary schools. In some districts the number of pupils who enter secondary schools rises almost to 70 - 80 per cent of the pupils in the said grades. The increase in the number of pupils has, naturally, lead to the establishment of numerous new secondary schools. Correspondingly the number of pupils who pass the secondary matriculation examination has also increased considerably. In 1950 their number was 4.000 whereas the corresponding figure for 1966 was more than 15.000.

During the last two decades university studies have also become increasingly common. One new university has been founded and two institutes of higher education have been transformed into universities. A decision has also been taken concerning the founding of four new institutes for higher education. Two temporary teacher training colleges have also been founded in which students who have passed the secondary matriculation examination are trained into primary school teachers.

Recent Changes

The aim of educational policy for the next few years is to unite the primary schools and the junior secondary schools into a comprehensive nine-year basic school, the basis of which was laid already by the Primary Education Act of 1957 and the Primary School Decree of 1958 and the amendments made therein later. The outlines of the new basic school were drawn up in the report of the School Programme Committee of 1959. These outlines were developed further by the Basic School Committee in its preliminary Report I in 1965 and by the Committee on the School Reform in its report in 1966. Presently, the Curriculum Committee for the Basic School is drafting the curriculum for the new comprehensive school. The draft bill concerning the principles of the new school system was brought to the Diet in April, 1967.

Plans for the training of teachers for the basic school are also being drafted by a committee. In its report, which was published in April, 1967, the committee drew up the outlines of future teacher training.

Vocational education has up to now been under several ministries. This administrative division has not been to the advantage of integrated planning. The government has, therefore, investigated the possibilities of centralizing the educational system under the Ministry of Education with the exception of a few specialized vocational training institutions.

The long-term development plans of the universities and the other institutes of higher education have also been confirmed by legislation. According to these plans, higher education will expand considerably during the next decade.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The planning of the new compulsory school, i.e. the basic school, which will comprise the present secondary, civic and primary schools, was initiated already at the end of the 1950's. According to the plans, the comprehensive school will be a nine-year, municipal school, the lower level of which comprises the I-VI grades and the higher stage of which includes the VII-IX grades. According to the plans, the curriculum of the lower stage of the basic school will be on the whole the same for all pupils whereas, at the higher stage, the pupils will also be taught common subjects, the curricula of which may, however, vary in scope, and the pupils can also take optional subjects. In addition to the comprehensive school, the municipal school system would also include kindergartens, senior secondary schools and vocational schools.

Naturally, the transition to the new educational system cannot take place very rapidly. The aim is, however, to accelerate the

process of development through legislatory measures. The premises for educational planning will be considerably improved so that it will be possible to avoid uneconomical solutions. The report of the Basic School Committee of 1965 and the draft bill concerning the principles of the school system presupposes that staff for educational planning would be appointed and boards and committees for educational planning would be set up within the central administration, regional administration and local administration. The planning of instruction at the senior secondary school level is also presently under work in a Committee. The task of the Senior Secondary School Committee is particularly to see to that attention is paid in national planning to the needs for developing and unifying instruction at the senior secondary school level starting from the premises of the basic education to be reformed. The Committee will also investigate the possibilities of giving students other than those matriculating from the actual senior secondary schools, e.g. students in technical colleges and commercial colleges, the opportunity to pass the secondary matriculation examination. A reform of the secondary matriculation examination itself is also under consideration.

The Teacher Training Committee has proposed in its report in which it has investigated the problems connected with the training of teachers for the basic school, that all teacher training should be based on the secondary matriculation examination or on an examination of a corresponding level. According to the suggestions of the committee, teacher training for the teachers of the basic school should be at the level of the lower university degree, the degree of candidate in humanistic sciences. The training should take place through co-operation between the universities and the teacher training colleges.

At the end of 1966, a Committee was appointed for the planning of the curricula of the basic school. The task of the Committee is to draft a homogenous curriculum for the basic school. The Committee will draw up temporary curricula before the end of 1967, in order to make it possible to test the new school form in practice as soon as possible.

In addition to the appointment of the above-mentioned committees other measures have also been taken in order to further educational planning. At the beginning of 1966 a bureau for educational planning was established in the National Board of Schools, the field of activities of which covers the investigation of problems related to the organization of school districts and the systematical construction of schools. The bureau also deals with other questions related to educational planning. In the field of vocational education an extention of the educational facilities is also planned so that all desirous to do so should be able to carry on continued vocational studies. Instruction at the level of higher education is also under consideration in a Committee appointed for the purpose. The report of the Committee has already resulted in the issuance of regulations concerning the development of the system of higher education.

In their capacity of administrators at the provincial level the primary school inspectors have taken measures with the support of the authorities for the long-range planning of the educational conditions in their inspection districts. Individual municipalities have also taken an interest in the planning of education within their areas.

In addition to the educational authorities, some other bodies have also conducted efficient educational planning. Of these, the Finnish Population and Family Welfare League and the Union of

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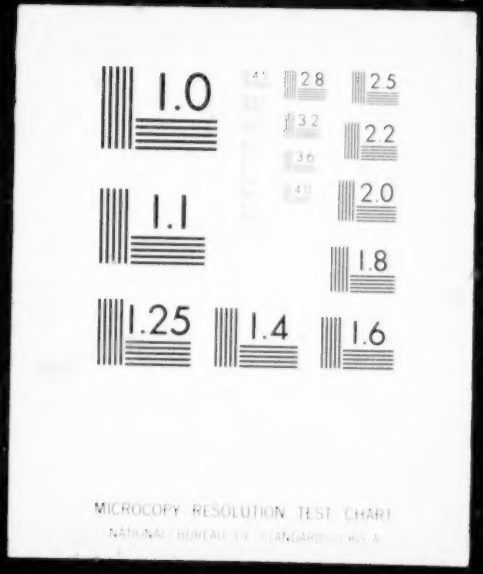

Rural Municipalities may be mentioned. Some individual persons have also drawn up educational programmes for certain regions.

Many local factors, such as the small size of some municipalities and differences in opinion between different individuals bodies have, in some cases, rendered the drafting of efficient educational programmes difficult. Educational planning has, however, on the other hand, gained in efficiency since one has begun to regard it as a vital part of community development and economic planning. Educational planning has also been strengthened through co-operation with regional planning bodies.

Educational planning has until lately primarily been concerned with problems related to the number of schools and institutes of education and to their location, which have been investigated above all in the light of population groupings and demographic estimates. The planning has aimed at the elimination of erroneous solutions when school districts have been formed and school buildings have been constructed.

Educational planning has mainly been concerned with primary and secondary schools. As the population is moving from the sparsely populated areas to the towns and to population centres the planning of the schools in the rural municipalities has, above all, been the subject of study. There are, however, not yet any official regulations concerning educational planning so that the plans drawn up are not regarded as binding but mainly as recommendations. In some cases the municipalities are, however, obliged to co-operate in the planning of their educational facilities.

Main Goals

The main goals of educational planning in Finland are, thus to avoid unnecessarily expensive and disunifying measures at all levels of education and to further the development of a purposeful, homogenous and flexible system of education.

FINANCE, BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT

Finance

The educational system in Finland is mainly financed by State funds, which are collected by various kinds of taxation. A part of the expenditure of the municipal schools and the private schools is covered by other than State funds but this part is, with the exception of the primary schools in the towns, not very significant. In respect of the compulsory school, i.e. the basic school, the intention is to establish an increasingly efficient system of government subsidies in the next few years by which the financial situation of the individual municipalities will be taken more into account than presently.

At present the rural municipalities cover c. 70 % of their educational expenditure by State grants whereas the urban centres receive a little more. State grants cover about 25 % of the corresponding expenditure in the towns. The State also grants rural and urban districts subsidies for school building expenses up to 60 - 95 % of the total costs.

About two thirds (2/3) of the more than 600 secondary schools in Finland are privately-owned. Upon the fulfillment of certain conditions they receive State subsidies for more than 80 % of their expenditure. The other secondary schools are state or municipal schools. The expenditure of the state schools is cover-

ed by the State. The term fees paid by the pupils in the secondary schools cover a very small part of the expenses.

The vocational training schools and institutes are owned by the State, the municipalities, organizations and they may also be privately-owned. Upon the fulfilment of certain conditions laid down by legislation, the municipal and private vocational schools receive state grants which cover about 65 % of their expenditure. The technical colleges cover 80 % of the remuneration of the teaching staff and 50 % of their other expenses by state subsidies and the commercial schools and colleges receive State aid which covers about 75 % of their actual expenditure.

The training of teachers for the different kinds of schools is almost completely government subsidized. The institutes and schools belonging to the sphere of supplementary education also receive considerable financial support from the State (75 %).

Of the universities in Finland, three are state-owned and three are privately-owned. The other institutes of higher education are also either state- or privately-owned. The amount of the government grants received by the universities and the institutes of higher education constitutes about 50 - 75 % of their total expenditure.

The funds included in the national budget shall, generally, be used for the purposes for which they have been granted. The opinion of the Ministry of Finance must, however, be obtained for many major items of expenditure before the funds may be used. The State Economy Comptrollers' Office supervises the administration of the funds.

In respect of the administration of the funds the school authorities may not deviate from the purposes for which the funds have been allocated in the budget. If new, imperative expenses

arise at the end of the budget year, funds for covering them must be applied for from the supplementary budgets drawn up during the year. Should it prove impossible to obtain the funds in the said manner the plans for the execution of which the funds are needed must be postponed until the financing of the plans has been settled.

The salaries of the teaching staff is the biggest item of expenditure within the educational system. The extent to which the State supports the primary schools should also be observed - in the primary schools all school materials and text books as well as school meals and transportation are free of charge to the pupils.

School Buildings

Considerable amounts are also required annually for the construction of schools and other institutes of education. The permission of the Government is required for the construction of schools in rural municipalities, urban districts, and towns which have been founded after 1959 and also for the construction of schools owned by the State itself. When the grant for the construction of a school has been received, the plan for the use of the floor space of the school is approved at the central administrative level. When the said plan and the building lot where the school is to be constructed are in order, the constructional drawings are maid. The drawings are generally made by an architect or an architect's office. The Government does not give its permission to the commencement of the construction work until the necessary funds for covering the building costs have been obtained. The suggestions of the employment officials concerning

the point of time when the construction work should begin must also be taken into account. The towns and private bodies are more free to plan their construction of school buildings, but if a building constructed with the support of a government grant or a government loan, the construction plans must comply with certain requirements.

School Supplies and Equipment

The administrative bodies, the boards, headmasters, and rectors of the schools and institutes of education administer purchases, modernizations and repairs within the limits of their budgets. The schools also order educational aids within the limits of their annual subsidies and the primary schools finance all educational materials and text books with the subsidies which they receive. The National Board of Schools supervises, however, the expenditure for text books and school materials of the primary schools by confirming the annual amount of school materials for each pupil and issuing directives concerning the distribution of textbooks. The primary school inspectors as well as the inspectors of other educational institutes also supervises how the schools have taken care of their collections of educational materials and aids.

RESEARCH

Until lately, educational research has been practically entirely the concern of individual scholars. A few years ago the Government established, however, a number or research posts for the

development of educational research. Some years ago a private centre for educational research was founded in Jyväskylä, which will possibly in the near future become state-owned. The National Board of Schools has already commissioned some research projects from the centre.

The individual scholars mentioned above have been university professors or other university teachers. While research into the history of education, which was formely the main form of educational research in Finland, has lately been left more aside, the attention is now focused on the measuring of school results and problems related to curricula, learning processes and teacher training.

Although increasing attention has lately been paid to experimental educational research, not much has been done yet towards rendering the results of the research work accessible to teachers and administrative officials. The relative difficulty of interpreting the research report has constituted an obstacle to the dissemination of information. Thus, one of the main tasks in connection with educational research will be the presentation of research results in a popular, easily accessible form.

Furthermore, the Central Statistical Office in Finland has a special division for educational statistics.

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